

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 2, 1882.

The Week.

BOSSISM received a heavy blow in a new quarter last week at the hands of Mr. Bainbridge Wadleigh, ex-Senator from New Hampshire. The text of Mr. Wadleigh's speech was the corrupting influence of money in elections, and, as the illustrations which he employed were of the concrete sort—being pictures of scenes enacted repeatedly before the eyes of his listeners—it must have had a profound influence upon them. The facts, which he disclosed with the directness of a demonstrator of anatomy in a dissecting-room, have been talked about in whispers in all parts of the Union these many years. Money wrung from the lobby in Washington and Concord has become the chief factor of elections in New Hampshire. This money has been employed not to pay the ordinary expenses of campaigns—the expenses of meetings, the printing and circulation of documents, etc.—but for the purchase of votes. The natural result was that “voters lost their patriotic instincts—many men who saw their neighbors paid for voting persuaded themselves that they too ought to be paid for mercenary votes.” “My friends,” continued Mr. Wadleigh, “this question of purity in elections is the greatest in American politics. It must be grappled with and rightly solved, or at no distant day we shall politically perish. Political corruption is the greatest existing danger to that doctrine of equal rights which underlies our Government. It is the devouring worm at the root of the tree of liberty, the poison in the fountain of our national life. Day by day the power of money grows in this country. If votes are mercenary, the people will be deprived of all power. They will become mere tools to register the will of their corruptors.” Mr. Wadleigh went on to say that the nomination of Mr. Hale, the Republican candidate for Governor, was accomplished by bribery, and that the chief of the corruptionists in New Hampshire politics had been and was William E. Chandler, the present Secretary of the Navy.

When Mr. William E. Chandler was made Secretary of the Navy no one doubted that he would treat the Department as “spoils,” and consequently nobody has been disappointed. He is one of the statesmen who can hardly conceive of a branch of the public Administration having no spoils in it. Moreover, to them, although there is a difference in spoils, all spoils are good. Hubbell takes two per cent. on a salary of one hundred dollars just as readily as two per cent. on a salary of ten thousand, and so also Mr. Chandler finds a messenger's “place” often as useful as that of the head of a bureau. He has just performed an act of more than usual meanness, even for an active manager, in the dismissal of George J. Beanes, a colored man, of a race in the happiness and welfare of which Mr. Chandler, when running about the country as plain “Bill”

Chandler, two or three years ago, denouncing “outrages,” professed to take a great interest. Beanes served for thirteen years in the Navy, continuously afloat, and also served through the Mexican war and the late war. He was appointed to an office in the Department in 1869—his duties being the care and arrangement of charts, and the painting of lighthouses thereon. He is well known to naval officers as a careful, sober, honest, zealous man, against whom no complaint has ever been made. His thirteen years of experience in the Hydrographic Office has given him a familiarity with the records and archives which makes him almost essential to the Chart Department. Well, a few days ago, this honest, competent, experienced officer and colored man was dismissed to make way for a woman, presumably backed by some male “influence.” He went to the Secretary to ask the reason, and was told that there was no other reason than that he (the Secretary) wanted the place. Every naval officer in and out of Washington sympathizes heartily with Beanes, and naturally feels humiliated at the thought that the Navy should be in the hands of a man capable of so grossly abusing his trust.

The argument in the Curtis case last week took a wide range, and the judges asked General Curtis's counsel a number of questions which seemed to show a decided leaning in favor of the anti-assessment act. He insists that the act is unconstitutional because it prohibits not merely the receiving of assessments, but the making contributions as well. It is a sufficient answer to this argument, as the Solicitor-General said in reply, that General Curtis was indicted, not for giving, but for receiving; it is, however, to be hoped that the Supreme Court, in disposing of the case, will consider the whole policy of the act. Why is an employee prohibited from “giving” to an officer of the Government? Judge Miller, in the course of the argument on Wednesday, hinted that it was to protect the subordinate from exactions. But protecting a man from doing an act by making the act a misdemeanor, does not seem a very natural way of accomplishing the object; and the view of the court below—that the intention of the act is not merely to protect the clerks, but to protect the service itself from corrupting influences—seems to cover the whole ground much better. A clerk may habitually give a portion of his salary to a political committee voluntarily, but if he does, his action is undoubtedly influenced by a desire to retain his place, and consequently his payment is a thinly disguised purchase of the favor of the Committee. It is this fact which Congress, in passing the statute forbidding such gifts, seems to have recognized, and we can see no reason why the Judges of the Supreme Court should close their eyes to it. Mr. Wheeler's brief, submitted on behalf of the Civil-Service Reform Association, deals with the act as directed against the entire practice of collecting and paying assessments, and puts the argument on broader grounds than those which

the Attorney-General seems to have instructed Mr. Phillips to confine himself to.

The Supreme Court of Wisconsin has decided that it is not in all cases the duty of firemen to rescue people from burning buildings. Some time ago, when the Beckwith House at Oshkosh was in flames, one Paige offered \$5,000 to any one who would save his wife. Charles Rief, a fireman on duty at the time, closed with Mr. Paige, saved Mrs. Paige, and claimed the reward. Mr. Paige refused to pay, and Rief brought a suit against him, which he lost. The Supreme Court, however, has now ordered a new trial, on the ground that the rescue involved “imminent peril” to the plaintiff's life, and that it was not his duty to expose himself to such peril. Under this decision there ought to be an active demand for positions in the Oshkosh fire department. The experience and coolness of firemen make their services in saving life at fires very desirable, and persons desiring the rescue of wives and children would generally prefer to intrust a fireman with the work rather than to put it in the hands of an ordinary bystander. By allowing the flames to get under a good headway, first-rate firemen could often command a high price for their services, and there would always be plenty of witnesses to the contract. At large fires there would probably be active bidding for the best firemen. We cannot see why the principle of the decision should be confined to services in saving life. It seems very hard, if a fireman need not imperil his life to save women and children, that he should be called upon to do so for the sake of houses and furniture. The old idea of a fireman was that his duties at fires were determined by his status as a fireman, and not by bargains he might make while engaged in putting out the flames. Sociologists maintain, however, that progress in civilization is chiefly marked by the change from status to contract, and the Wisconsin decision will therefore interest not only firemen, but all who believe in progress.

All critics of the United States seem to be agreed that there are certain valuable things or qualities which, as a people, we want, whether we know it or not. It is curious to see how they differ as to what these are, however. Mr. Herbert Spencer thinks that we need to acquire the habit of insisting on individual rights. General Booth, of the Salvation Army, thinks that what we need is a “hallelujah hurdy-gurdy in our insides, played on by the Holy Ghost.” Mr. Freeman's only really serious objection to American civilization is that we do not invent some better name for ourselves than Americans. Mr. Walt Whitman, on the other hand, declares that “our fundamental want to-day in the United States, with closest, amplest reference to present conditions, and to the future, is of a class, and the clear idea of a class, of native authors, literatures, far different, far higher in grade, than any yet known, sacerdotal, modern, fit to cope with our occasions, lands, permeating the whole mass of American men-

talities, taste, belief, breathing into it a new breath of life, giving it decision, affecting politics far more than the popular superficial suffrage, with results inside and underneath the elections of Presidents and Congresses." There is no reason why we should not have such a class, and the clear idea of such a class, too; but then the sacerdotal literatus must look out for the District Attorney. It might put back the new learning a hundred years if it had to be suppressed as unfit for publication.

The *Savannah Morning News*, after commenting with some severity on the inferences drawn by us from the late Knoxville slaughter regarding the attitude of the Southern mind toward homicide, says:

"The Mabry-O'Connor affair was most deplorable, and nowhere is it more regretted than at the South. But until the millennium comes, men will quarrel, and murder and homicides will take place everywhere. The only difference between homicides North and South is that in the North, when one man 'has a grudge' against another, he generally waits for his victim in a dark alley, or endeavors in some way to slay him unawares, so as to insure his own safety and escape detection; while, in the South, the rule is to meet and fight it out openly like men. We deprecate all such affrays, and believe that stern justice should be meted out to those who engage therein. Still, the South is not the only spot where they occur, and our Northern maligners would do well to pluck the beams out of their own eyes before they presume to pull the mote from the eyes of their fellow-citizens of this much-abused and vilified region."

It is to talk of this kind on the part of the Southern press that the perpetuation of the homicidal mania at the South must be in large part ascribed. The minds of the young men are debauched by it, and prepared for murder, almost as soon as they are able to buy and carry a pistol. They learn from it to think of killing somebody as one of the probable incidents of their career, which the friends and neighbors will look on with indulgence, and even a certain ill-disguised admiration. Out of this state of expectation of having to kill, readiness to kill on slight provocation naturally and easily grows. The horror of bloodshed—as something which has "the primal eldest curse upon it"—that most precious fruit and surest sign of a high civilization, cannot spring up in a community in which all the best portion of the male population goes armed, and thinks of having to murder a friend as one of the contingencies of peaceable existence, which any day's business or pleasure may bring forth.

Moreover, the Southern press, when representing, as in the article before us, that murder is a common mode of settling differences in the more highly civilized communities, and that the South differs from them in this matter only in doing the bloody work in a more manly and courageous way, is addressing a people more than usually isolated hitherto from the rest of the world, and still, as before the war, too much given to suppose that it has kept up with the rest of the world in the things which in our day constitute the modern state. The Southern boy, when told the ridiculous story that leading lawyers and merchants in Boston and Buffalo, when they quarrel, lie in wait for each other with shotguns, and kill each other on the sly, naturally supposes that

the same custom prevails in England and on the European Continent, and that the Southern system of killing enemies openly in the street, or in offices in business hours, or in courts of law, is really a sign of greater culture and of a nobler temper. He concludes, therefore, that the South is in this matter, as in others, really in advance of other communities, and that "the street fight" between leading citizens is something which New York, London, and Paris are coming to, not leaving behind. In this way he is really protected against one of the most potent educating influences of our time—the shame of being more brutal, savage, and uncivilized than our neighbors. The true course for our Savannah contemporary, and all other Southern papers which wish to launch the South on the current of modern progress, and make it really "the heir of all the ages," is not to content themselves with "deploring" or "regretting" these tragedies, but to denounce them with all the vehemence at their command, and lash judges and juries into remembrance of the fact that the first duty of government is to remove the manslayer out of the sight of his fellow-men. Hanging or no hanging, murderers ought not to be allowed to walk the streets or fields in which they have murdered. And boys ought to be taught that going armed and in readiness for manslaughter is a sign of secret disloyalty if not of contempt for the State, as evincing total distrust of its ability to protect its citizens, and scorn for its tribunals. This consideration may affect many who have learnt neither from parents nor pastor the respect due to human life. We will add, too, that the Sixth Commandment, which, we believe, is still ostensibly respected in Georgia and Tennessee, does not say, "Thou shalt deplore or regret murder." It says, "Thou shalt not kill," and from it there flows as an imperative and inevitable inference, "Thou shalt see, as far as in thee lies, that murderers are caught, tried, and hanged, and shalt not apologize for them, or palliate their crimes in thy paper."

The walking-match which came to an end last week was less successful than was anticipated by the managers, owing no doubt in some measure to the interference of the police with bookmaking. Rowell broke down again, and there seems a great deal of doubt whether he will ever be able to enter another match. The fictitious interest given to some of the earlier walking-matches as "international" contests has pretty much died out, and probably cannot be revived. The limit of the "record" has been very nearly ascertained, and whether it can be beaten by a few miles more or less has ceased to be an interesting question. It has also been demonstrated that a walking-match is not pretty or entertaining as a spectacle, and that most of the athletes it brings to the front, instead of being well-made, fine-looking men, are, at their best, wretched-looking specimens of their kind, and after walking for a day or two become positively repulsive. Some substitute for walking-matches will probably now have to be invented, because the supply of capital seeking employment in friendly contests of all kinds cannot remain idle.

The event of the week in Wall Street and in the railroad world was the transfer of the controlling interest in the New York, Chicago and St. Louis Railroad (called the Nickel-Plate Line)—extending from Buffalo to Chicago—from the builders of the road to Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt and friends of his in other railroads who can make use of the new line. The projectors and builders of it sold out at a profit of \$6,000,000 to \$7,000,000 above the cost of the road. As Mr. Vanderbilt had, since the inception of the road, decried its value, and stoutly protested that he would have nothing to do with it, his purchase of the property was at first doubted. The transaction had less influence in the stock market than might have been expected. The money market during the week was amply supplied with loanable funds at low rates until the last day of the month, when preparations for November interest payments caused a shifting of loans and higher rates. Foreign exchange declined during the week, but it is no longer expected that rates will fall to the gold-importing point. At the Stock Exchange it was a dull week, the markets having been only temporarily enlivened by the large railway transfer above alluded to. General trade was moderately active, but not up to the expectations formed early in the season. Although the movement of the crops is backward, railroad earnings continue large, and promise to be larger as soon as navigation closes.

The purchase of the "Nickel-Plate Road" is taken by the public very much as a matter of course. Yet a few years ago a transaction of such magnitude would have been looked upon as a chapter out of the 'Arabian Nights,' whether considered in the light of the net profit made by the sellers, or the ease with which the buyers turned over the money to complete the trade. The rapidity and silence with which the road was built was one of the marvels of the day. Few persons except those whose journeyings brought them in the vicinity of the work, knew that such a road was building until it was actually completed from Buffalo to Cleveland. Nearly all, too, who looked on while millions upon millions of dollars were spent in its construction, esteemed it a chimerical and utterly wasteful project. Whether the acquisition will be a gain or otherwise to the Lake Shore Company, depends altogether upon the question whether the business of the country tributary to the line has grown sufficiently to require a third track. Not less singular than the celerity and secrecy with which so gigantic a work has been constructed and swapped off, is the fact that the monopoly feature of the recent trade has attracted no attention. The truth is, that the public never looked at the Nickel-Plate Road as a competing line. They knew that it would be taken into the pool, and they knew, also, that, as regards the great grain-carrying lines, the competition which centres at Liverpool—the competition of Russia, India, Egypt, and Australia—as well as that of our own lakes and canals, would be a far more powerful regulator of through-freights than the addition of one line of rails to the seven already existing between Chicago and the principal seaboard cities.

It is gratifying to learn that there is no truth in the story of Jay Gould's narrow escape from being run over by one of William H. Vanderbilt's engines at Rochester. As Gould no longer controls the Erie Railroad, there was no rational ground for Vanderbilt's desire to run him down or kill him, and had it been committed the act would have to be attributed to pure and almost insane malice. It is interesting, however, to speculate upon what might have been the consequences had the fiendish deed been really perpetrated. Had Jay Gould been killed, his family could only have recovered \$5,000; had he been injured, however, to such an extent as to prevent his continuing his labors in Wall Street, he could have recovered damages based on his earning capacity. In the last twenty years he has earned \$60,000,000, or \$3,000,000 a year; and a verdict based on this rate for the rest of his life would net him, perhaps, some \$20,000,000 to \$30,000,000 more. This would sweep away a large part of Vanderbilt's earnings, and therefore ordinary prudence would obviously dictate a careful management of the latter's engines when Gould is about. It could only be in the crisis of a great railroad war between trunk lines that such means would be resorted to, and then only in sheer desperation. Gould, in his interview on the subject, says, in his good-natured way, "If I ever go into the business of supplying the public with news, as I have been informed by sundry newspapers that I intend to do, I hope I shall be a little more careful as to the news I supply than some people now occupied in that way appear to be." No good journalist can be too careful on this point, and we are glad that Gould's attention has been called to the shocking recklessness and inaccuracy so often apparent in the profession. He will, we fear, find the task of thorough-going reform a hard one, and he cannot, even with his immense resources, begin a day too soon.

The elections for the Prussian Landtag turn out to have resulted in anything but the great Liberal triumph which was at first reported. While the "Progressists" have won a few seats, the "National" or moderate Liberals have lost several, so that the union of all the Liberal factions for a common effort in the election appears to have been, if not a failure, at least not productive of great results. The relative strength of the different parties in the Landtag will not be very materially changed. Neither the Conservatives, nor the Clericals, nor the Liberals have a majority. And each one of these different parties, if they may be so called, is subdivided into several "fractions," except the Clericals, who reappear with their old strength perfectly united. The Government, in order to carry any of its favorite measures, will consequently, as heretofore, be obliged to form combinations between different parties, or fractions of different parties, and the Opposition will not be able to act upon a common plan of tactics. The situation is therefore as confused as possible. The coming session of the Landtag is likely to result, as many of those that went before it, in much wordy and fruitless wrangling and little action. And as these wrangles, even when they are

followed by votes adverse to the Government, never result in any change of administration—in other words, as the stake of Parliamentary combats is not such as to awaken a strong public interest—popular indifference as to the Parliamentary branch of the Government seems to be constantly increasing. The number of voters who take part in the elections is very small in proportion to the whole number qualified; it seems to have been particularly small this last time.

As to the making up of Parliamentary combinations, Prince Bismarck has had great practice, and sometimes much success. But the task is becoming more and more difficult since he turned his face away from the Liberals. His attempt to form a reliable majority by combining the Clericals with the Conservatives has resulted in utter failure. The Clericals, who were to be won over by concessions with regard to the celebrated Falk laws, became only more exacting the more the offered concessions convinced them that the Government earnestly desired their aid. This has always been the policy of the Church. In this last campaign the leaders of the Clericals openly avowed that neither political nor economical questions were of any importance to them, and that the interests of the Church were the only things they cared for; and in this they were sustained by their constituencies. Bismarck seems to have come to the conclusion that an alliance with the Clericals would have to be purchased at too high a price, and even then would not be trustworthy. This he learned to his sorrow when they left him in the lurch with his tobacco monopoly and his state insurance for workmen. It is now reported that he will try once more a combination between the moderate Conservatives and the moderate Liberals, although it is difficult to see how in that way he can expect to construct a majority in the Landtag, since there are not enough of them. Still, the tone of the "inspired" press seems to indicate that this is the purpose.

There appears to be no doubt that the accounts from France about the alarm caused by the Anarchists have been grossly exaggerated. The miners at Montceau-les-Mines are tranquilly and peaceably at their work, and appear to be as curious about the bombs and the bloodthirsty proclamations as the rest of the world. The trouble there seems to have been caused mainly by the religious zeal of one of the proprietors. A good deal of dynamite and many bombs are found, but nobody as yet seems to have been hurt by them, and the explosions have been confined to stone crosses and church doors. The alarm at Lyons is due apparently to placards and threatening letters, and it has been ascertained that a considerable number at least of the threatening letters are boaxes. In short, the disturbances begin to have, when viewed in connection with the present extraordinary activity of the Legitimists, very much the air of "a put-up job." This suspicion is greatly strengthened by the appearance of articles and despatches both in the Conservative French papers and

in the English ones, expressing doubts about the ability of the Republic to meet such alarming crises, and prophesying a dictatorship of Gambetta or somebody. The truth is, that as against Socialists no Government can compare for strength with a Republic. The two most formidable risings of the Socialists in France—that of June, 1848, and of the Commune—were put down by the Republic with a remorseless energy which no monarch would have dared to show. A monarch, in suppressing an insurrection, is always more or less paralyzed by the consideration that he is fighting for himself and his family, while a President represents simply the community at large; and the community which stands behind President Grévy to-day, in defence both of property and order, is a force such as the Anarchists have never confronted in France. There never was less need of a dictator, and there has not for fifty years been less likelihood of one.

The difficulties of the British Government in setting up the Khedive in Egypt have already begun, and are apparently likely to be serious enough. The theory on which the war was conducted was that it was a war to put down a military mutiny, and restore the Khedive's authority. The war is now over, and the leading mutineer is in his master's hands, who wants to try him for the offence of which the British Government by its interference acknowledged him to be guilty. The Khedive and his Ministers wish to try Arabi in their own way before native judges, and with Egyptian rules of procedure. But here the British step in and say that, although a mutineer, he is their prisoner of war, and that they need not, therefore, let him be tried at all, but that if they do let him be tried, he must have an Englishman among the judges, and must have English counsel to assist in his defence. But, say the Ministers, if he is simply your prisoner of war, there is no reason for our trying him at all. You should deal with him yourselves for whatever you have against him. If he is something more than this—viz., an Egyptian criminal—and you wish Egyptian courts to try him, how can you ask us to use our courts for the purpose if you do not trust our judges, and do not believe a trial can be fair unless the defence is conducted by foreign lawyers? These are questions clearly difficult to answer, and they have not been answered satisfactorily. English barristers have gone out to defend Arabi, but the Egyptian Ministry resent their interference, and say with great force that the British interference in the trial is calculated to weaken the Khedive's authority in the eyes of the natives at the very moment when it is of the last importance to strengthen it. Lord Dufferin has been sent to Egypt apparently to superintend the process of reconstruction, and keep things from getting into a tangle, but it will strain all his tact and perspicacity to reconcile the theory on which the armed interference has been based, with the view of the English public at home as to the shape it should now take, when the war is over.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, October 25, to THURSDAY, October 31, 1882 inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President has issued a proclamation appointing Thursday, November 30, as a day of general thanksgiving and prayer.

Arthur Payne, colored, one of the four men for whose arrest warrants were issued for attempting corruptly to influence the Star-route jurymen, was arrested in Washington on Wednesday. Jurymen Brown, colored, is the man whom Payne is accused of attempting to bribe. On Thursday the report of Mr. H. H. Wells, special counsel for the Government, in charge of the bribery investigation, was made public. The report states that affidavits taken show that members of the jury were offered bribes in money for their votes, and that it is alleged that these solicitations proceeded as well from the agents of the Government as from the agents of the persons on trial. Mr. Wells then sets forth at length the affidavits taken by him, and sums up their contents by saying: "It is apparent, from the whole history of the alleged attempt upon Brown's virtue, that it was not done with the knowledge, in behalf of, or in the interest of the prosecution; that its guilty authors were neither the agents nor acted with the knowledge or approval of any officer of the Department of Justice. It was a deliberate and carefully prepared conspiracy against the administration of justice." His reasons for coming to this conclusion are as follows: The Government could have no interest in bribing the jury to convict; there was no fund in the Treasury out of which the large sums alleged to have been offered in bribes could have been taken without some record of the matter being kept; every person who pretended to have authority from the Government for the bribery transaction, admitted the falsity of the claim when charged therewith; and, finally, Brown, Taylor, Nelson, Fall, Laws, and Foote, "and indeed every one of the vile creatures who touched this infamous transaction, came forward without shame, but for what consideration I do not know, and put the proof of their guilt, in the form of affidavits, into the hands of counsel for the defendants." Mr. Wells, in conclusion, recommends that Fall, Payne, Foote, "and any other persons discovered to have aided or abetted in that transaction," be indicted and tried.

In the case of Dickson, the foreman of the Star-route jury, Mr. Wells finds that Henry A. Bowen had no authority from the Department of Justice, or any officer or subordinate thereof, to treat with Dickson on any subject relating to the Star-route trial, and that Bowen did not attempt to influence corruptly the action of Dickson as a juror; that "conversations did take place between Dickson and Bowen during the progress of the trial that were highly improper and unbecoming, but that the foreman did not believe that Bowen was acting or speaking with the knowledge or approval of the Attorney-General or any person in charge of or connected with the prosecution of the Star-route case; that he did not believe that any real attempts at bribery were made or intended, but that he did believe that Bowen's purpose was to find out 'whether the jury could be bought'; that Dickson, 'though so believing, made an unwarrantable use of his sworn statement before the Court and with the jury in the jury-room, with the purpose of securing the acquittal or preventing the conviction of some or all of the defendants'; and that Dickson sought an interview with Special Agent Cameron, of the Department of Justice, 'for the purpose of obtaining from him some proposal, suggestion, or intimation, to be used before the jury, for the purpose of bringing the conduct of the Attorney-General and his subordinates into dishonor and contempt, and thereby to influence the jury to acquit the accused.'"

Dickson was arrested on Saturday, and will probably be bound over to await the action of the Grand Jury.

The committee appointed to investigate the conduct of the trustees of the Irish Skirmishing Fund have made a report, in which, after making specific charges of misappropriation, they offer to discontinue the investigation if the trustees will only hand over what money may yet remain in their possession.

At a meeting of the Board of Directors of the Garfield Monument Fair Association at Washington, Tuesday night, encouraging advices were reported. The whole space of the rotunda of the Capitol has been already taken, most of it by prominent New York houses, and the Secretary of the Association is in daily receipt of donations and exhibits from all parts of the country.

The jury in the Scoville insanity case unanimously declared Mrs. Scoville, sister of the assassin Guiteau, insane.

The annual report of First Assistant Postmaster-General Hutton, for the fiscal year ending June 30, shows that the number of post-offices then in operation was 46,231, an increase of 1,719 during the year; 1,951 of these offices are filled by appointment of the President, and are known as Presidential offices, and the remainder—44,280—are filled by appointment of the Postmaster-General. He recommends an extension of the free-delivery system. The report says that a Postal Commission visited the several large cities during the year, and at eight post-offices effected a reduction of \$54,530, without any apparent inconvenience to the proper transaction of business of these offices.

The Chief of the Bureau of Statistics at Washington reports that in the month of September there arrived in the customs districts of Baltimore, Boston, Detroit, Huron, Minnesota, New Orleans, New York, Passamaquoddy, Philadelphia, and San Francisco 65,750 passengers, of whom 49,935 were immigrants, 11,340 citizens of the United States returned from abroad, and 4,475 aliens not intending to remain in the United States.

The issue of standard silver dollars from the mints for the week ending October 28 was \$748,000, as against \$406,000 for the corresponding period of last year.

The stenographic report of the statements made before the Tariff Commission is almost completed, and it is expected that within a week it will be in type. Altogether the Commission travelled about 7,000 miles, held public sessions for about seventy days, and heard the statements of between 500 and 600 persons. The printed record will fill about 2,000 pages.

In conformity with an act passed at the last session of Congress, the Secretary of the Interior, a few months ago, appointed a commission to visit the various Sioux Indian agencies in Dakota, and endeavor to secure the consent of the Indians to the surrender of a portion of their reservation. The commission have been engaged in their work for some time, and their first official communication, which was a telegram from Pine Ridge, Dakota Territory, indicates that, so far as the one agency spoken of is concerned, their mission has been successful.

A despatch from Pensacola, dated Monday, puts the total number of cases of yellow fever to date at 2,227, with 174 deaths. The small number of new cases confirms the opinion entertained that the end of the pestilence is near.

The Penn celebration in Pennsylvania was brought to an end on Friday, which was styled "Military day." The principal feature of the day was a parade by the militia of the State and military organizations from neighboring cities. Over 20,000 men were in line, and the streets were packed with spectators. The final ceremonies of the celebration took place in the evening in the Academy of Music, in which a large audience was assembled. After musical

exercises participated in by 1,200 school children, District-Attorney Graham delivered an address. He was followed by Governor Hoyt, who said the deliberations and labors of those who had devised and managed the celebration could be expressed in two words—triumphant success. The Governor then formally declared the celebration closed.

The Citizens' Committee of Philadelphia has decided to offer \$10,000 in rewards for the detection of fraud in the coming campaign.

The Citizens' movement in New York promises to be successful. A grand ratification meeting was held at the Cooper Union on Friday night, which was attended by an immense crowd. On the platform were 500 of the most prominent citizens of New York. Addresses were made by Carl Schurz, Joseph H. Choate, Allan Campbell, and others.

A Civil-Service Reform Association with a membership of over 200 was formed in Rochester, N. Y., on Thursday night. President Anderson, of Rochester University, presided. Mr. Willard Brown, Corresponding Secretary of the New York Association, explained the objects of the Association and the practical remedies suggested. A Civil-Service Reform Association was also organized in Oswego, N. Y., on Saturday night, with a membership of fifty of the most prominent men in the city. H. H. Stebbins was elected President.

The Brewers' Association, of Chicago, has sent circulars to the nominees for Congress and the State Legislature, propounding questions as to their opinions on the subject of prohibition, with the understanding that silence will be construed as implying disagreement with the views of the Association, and will subject the reticent candidates to opposition at the election.

The Park Theatre in New York, at which Mrs. Langtry was to appear on Monday night, was burnt on Monday afternoon. The loss is estimated at \$255,000. One man was burnt, one killed, and one badly hurt.

There has been incorporated at Boston the Palestine Colonization and Christian Missionary Association, formed for the purpose of colonizing Palestine with industrious and energetic Christians, and by their prudence, labor, and perseverance restoring it to its former grandeur, so that it will be the centre of the world not only geographically, but also in art, science, and wealth.

FOREIGN.

The French Minister of Justice has applied to have the persons arrested in connection with the riots in Montceau-les-Mines brought before a Paris tribunal instead of the Court of Assizes. The Minister states in his application that the Government have in their hands clues to a vast revolutionary organization, in accordance with which France is divided into local federations, directed by a committee having its headquarters in Geneva. Placards, recommending the assassination of leading politicians, have been posted on walls in Marseilles, St. Etienne, and Creuzot. An unsuccessful attempt was made on Monday, the 23d, to blow up the recruiting-office at Lyons. *Le Paris*, newspaper, has published the details of the Anarchist conspiracy, from which it appears that it is composed of a small number of staunch supporters in all the towns and manufacturing villages of France. All the groups in a department form a federation, and the federations form a link between the groups and the Central Committee, which is composed of delegates from the federations, and meets monthly at Geneva. The French Government is watching the matter closely, and is firmly resolved to use energetic measures to maintain public order. Private advices from Lyons on Friday represented the condition of things there as very alarming. Business was suspended and a panic had seized the population, the theatres on Thursday night being empty. On Monday the despatches stated that troops occupied the railways and all strategic points in the city of

Lyons. The forts dominating the city are prepared at the word of command to lay any portion of the city in ashes, and, if further explosions occur, the city will be placed under martial law. On Monday, proclamations were found posted on the walls in St. Sulpice, appealing to the people to commit acts of violence against the "slave-driving bourgeoisie," and ending with "Vive la Révolution Sociale." The Mayor of Marseilles has received a letter announcing that the Hôtel de Ville will be blown up on All Saints' Day, and it is reported that the Mayor and members of the Council have decided to remain at the Hôtel de Ville during Wednesday. The Central Committee of Radical Republicans has repudiated all connection with the fomenters of these disorders in Lyons and Montceau-les-Mines.

On Thursday afternoon, in the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone, moving a vote of thanks to the commander, officers, and men of the British Army in Egypt, said he would not ask the House to commit itself to the Government's policy. It would be the duty of the Government, however, to propose suitable annuities for Admiral Seymour and General Wolseley, who, he said, had accepted peerages. He spoke for an hour, concluding with a peroration on the confidence the Government might repose in its military forces. Sir Stafford Northcote seconded the vote of thanks, but reserved his opinion in regard to the effect of the conquest of Egypt. Sir Wilfrid Lawson then moved the previous question, but his motion was rejected by a vote of 354 to 17, the Parnellites voting in the minority. The vote of thanks was then agreed to. On Friday Mr. Parnell gave notice that he would call attention to the administration of the Land and Coercion Acts, and moved a resolution in reference thereto. The closure rules were then taken up, and an amendment offered by Mr. Storey, and accepted by the Government, that a question must have been adequately discussed before closure could be pronounced, was adopted.

In the House of Lords, on Thursday, Lord Granville moved a vote of thanks to the British Army in Egypt similar to that moved by Mr. Gladstone in the House of Commons. Lord Salisbury seconded the motion, and it was carried without a division. The Duke of Cambridge, on behalf of the Army, acknowledged the vote, and in flattering terms thanked Lord Granville for proposing and supporting it. The House then adjourned until November 10.

Mr. Gladstone made an eloquent speech on the closure rules in the House of Commons on Tuesday. An amendment in favor of a two-thirds majority having been offered, Mr. Gladstone said that he had formerly offered to accept a two-thirds majority solely as a tentative measure to prevent the waste of the session, but that he was justified in withdrawing the concession offered last session, as the Opposition had shown no sign of accepting it.

At a meeting of the Irish Parliamentary party on Friday a resolution in favor of amending the Arrears of Rent Bill was passed. This amendment is for an extension of the time in which a settlement can be made with a landlord in regard to the rent for 1881. The meeting also decided to support the various amendments to the closure rules.

At the opening of the Commission Court at Dublin on Wednesday, Judge Barry, charging the Grand Jury, said that although the cases to come before the court were few, they were most serious. He could not say whether the fewness of the cases under the Crimes Act was due to the improvement of the country. Mr. Egan has been requested to send a telegram to the President of the Irish National Land League of the United States, informing him that the only money paid to Members of Parliament was for travelling expenses, and that in all only £1,600 was given for this purpose, including the expenses of the trip of Messrs. Parnell and Dillon to America. Mr. Davitt,

speaking at Glasgow on Wednesday night, denied that there were splits in the Irish National party. He said there were differences of opinion between Mr. Parnell and himself, but not differences of principle. In a speech at Aberdeen on Saturday night, Mr. Davitt urged the Scotch farmers to demand a reduction of rents. He said they should claim the right to have an independent tribunal to arbitrate between them and the landlords. He thought it possible to bring about the concession to Scotland of a right which had been granted to Ireland.

Sir Garnet Wolseley reached Dover, on his return from Egypt, on Saturday afternoon, where he was enthusiastically received by a large crowd. On his arrival in London a similar reception awaited him. He was warmly welcomed at the station by Mr. Gladstone, the Duke of Cambridge, and the Duke of Teck.

The British Government has made a fresh proposal to Egypt in regard to the Indemnity Commission, according to which Egypt will have two representatives on the Commission and England and France one each. The United States and Greece will be invited to send representatives, and the minor States will have a collective representation.

A despatch from London says it is believed that the cost of the Egyptian war will amount to nearly £4,000,000, exclusive of the expense of the Indian contingent and the Army of occupation.

The English counsel in Egypt have declined to undertake the defence of Mahmud Barudi and Tulba Pasha, who are accused of incendiarism, but will defend Arabi, Ali Fehmi, Abdellal, and Osman Fanzli, the latter of whom is charged with intriguing in favor of Halim Pasha. They are to be tried separately. Arabi has delivered to Mr. Broadley, his counsel, a statement of the various indignities inflicted on him in prison, and others of the prisoners have also testified to the ill-treatment of the rebel prisoner. Mr. Broadley has instituted proceedings against the chief actors in these outrages. Arabi's family are obliged to shift their residence almost daily in order to avoid violence. In Arabi's correspondence are an important letter from the Sultan's aide-de-camp and several letters from the Sheik-ul-Islam. Mr. Broadley says that these letters will throw light upon the numerous telegrams found at Tel-el-Kebir. Among Arabi's documents now in the possession of the authorities there is also a letter from the Sultan's religious adviser, which is said to implicate seriously the Sultan in the course Arabi has pursued. There is a rumor that the Sultan has ordered the proceedings against Arabi to be stopped; but it is positively stated that the Egyptian Government has no intention of doing anything to prevent the proceedings from following their due course, whatever may be attempted by the Porte in that direction.

The British Government has decided to send Lord Dufferin to Egypt to aid Sir Edward Malet in the reorganization. This step has caused great excitement in Turkey.

The minutes of a Cabinet counsel held before the war have been found among Arabi's papers, which show that the Cabinet, at the meeting at which Dervish Pasha, the Turkish Commissioner, was present, decided to meet the British with armed resistance.

Arabi's defence is to be divided into two parts. The first will comprise the period before the war, in which he says he acted by orders of the Khedive, and the second, the time after July 10, in which he acted by command of the Sultan. The well-known Arabic scholar, Signor Santillani, of Rome, late Secretary to the Bey of Tunis, will come to Cairo to act as chief interpreter on behalf of the prisoners.

On Monday it was telegraphed that the Prosecuting Committee had finished examining witnesses for the prosecution, and that

their examination before the counsel for the defence would begin in a few days. Borelli Bey, the Public Prosecutor, has expressed the opinion that the evidence proves the complicity of Arabi in the pillage and burning of Alexandria.

The state of affairs in Sudan is engrossing the attention of the Egyptian Government. The Council of Ministers decided to instruct the Governor of Sudan to hold out at Khartoum until assistance arrives. It is stated that the False Prophet has reached Kordofan, and it has been decided to enlist as many black troops as possible for service against him. The command of these troops was offered to Ismail Pasha Eyub, who declined it.

Mohammed-Es-Sadok, Bey of Tunis, died on Friday night. He was buried on Sunday with imposing ceremonies. The foreign representatives, the French military authorities, and an escort of troops were present. The ceremony of installation of the new Bey, brother of the deceased, passed off quietly. M. Cambon, the French Minister, expressed the devotion of his Government to the new Bey, and said that France also expected the Bey's attachment. M. Cambon afterward addressed a circular to the foreign representatives notifying them of the death of Mohammed-Es-Sadok and the accession of Sidi Ali.

The London Times says that the British Government has informed France that it makes no objection to the establishment of French tribunals in Tunis, in the honorable conduct of which it has full confidence, but that Great Britain can permit nothing detrimental to her commercial treaty with Tunis. France has given the fullest assurances on this point, and it is understood by her that the rights of French citizens in Egypt shall be respected equally with those of the British, whatever arrangements England may make with Egypt.

A despatch from Rome says that the election for members of the new Parliament, which took place on Sunday, passed off quietly. All the members of the Cabinet were reflected, and the Ministerialists claim a large majority in the new Chamber.

Returns from 425 Prussian election districts give 133 Conservatives, 92 of the Centre Party, and 39 Progressists. The result of the elections probably is that the Conservatives and Free Conservatives have gained twelve seats, principally at the expense of the National Liberals. The representation of the other parties is the same as it was at the last session.

The Spanish Cortes will be convoked immediately after the Queen's confinement, which is expected soon. Marshal Serrano's programme has received the signatures of twenty-one leading politicians, including, however, only two Republicans. The old Republicans held a meeting on Saturday, and offered to support Serrano, but refused to accept a monarchical programme.

The most prominent members of the Democratic party and the dissident Liberal factions of Spain have formally signed a programme agreed upon between the different groups composing the Dynastic Left. The programme includes the reestablishment of the Constitution of 1869, with certain modifications. It was also decided to form a committee for the general direction of the party, and to instruct it to organize sub-committees in the provinces. Marshal Serrano has declared that he will endeavor to place the commercial relations of Spain with England on a better footing, without prejudice to Spanish interests.

A Cabinet council was held at Vienna on Sunday to discuss measures of relief in view of the renewed floods in the Tyrol. It is believed that the damages will reach 15,000,000 florins. The distress in the flooded districts of the Tyrol and Carinthia is said to be beyond description. The people are taking to flight in utter destitution, and the inhabitants of some of the smaller towns talk of emigrating to America.

AN INSTRUCTIVE PARALLEL.

THE rapidity with which the civil-service reform doctrine has been spreading within the last year is a very remarkable and, in some ways, a very instructive phenomenon. The agitation about it has been going on for over fifteen years, but it was, to all outward appearance, making but little impression on the classes who actively occupied themselves with politics. General Grant took it up with a certain show of earnestness when he became President, but met with so little encouragement that he was, when he left the Presidential chair, a very active perpetrator of most of the civil-service abuses. President Hayes, too, made but a very limited modification in the old system, and when he left office even those who were most friendly to the reform were free with their predictions that it would not be heard of again for many years.

During his administration, also, Gail Hamilton, the recognized mouthpiece of Mr. Blaine, who still hoped for the Presidency, thought it expedient to publish a series of twelve articles in the *Tribune*, ridiculing the movement as a mixture of humbug and hallucination, and every one prominently engaged in it as either a simpleton or a hypocrite. She even went so far as to deny the abolition of patronage in England, and all the Blaine faction chuckled over her tirade as a great clearing of the atmosphere.

About the same time many of the young men who had what are called political aspirations began to fight shy of the movement, as something connection with which would ruin their prospects, by bringing suspicions on their practical good sense. In fact, sneering at civil-service reform began with this class to be an easy way of showing freedom from illusions, and contempt for humbug. General Garfield, when elected, too, had apparently so far lost faith in the future of the idea that in his letter of acceptance he promptly avowed his willingness to maintain in his administration the leading feature of the spoils system, by continuing to divide the appointing power with Senators and Representatives. In political circles the fun of civil-service reform grew better and better: Conkling, and Smyth, and Platt, and all their kind were probably never so much amused by it as about the beginning of 1881.

All this is now changed. Not only do all the party platforms commend the reform in the very terms with which the reformers define it—this they have done for some time—but all candidates for office are now civil-service reformers, not only in the old sense of wishing to put "none but good men in office," but in the sense of wishing to select civil servants by competitive examination. We doubt if there is any candidate for high office in either party in any Northern State to-day who ventures to avow his belief in, or partiality for, the spoils system. All candidates for reelection who have in times past sneered at or opposed the reform, are now trying to explain their action or bury it in oblivion, and trying to persuade voters by some form of words that the charge that they were ever friendly to spoils is a cruel slander. On the stump at this moment there are several Sauls who have seen a great light on their way to Da-

mascus during the past year, and are now preaching the gospel they reviled only twelve months ago. Others are to be found in the newspapers and magazines clamoring for the abolition of the "American system" of boss appointments for party services. Even ex-Governor Rice, of Massachusetts, who not very long ago denounced the reform as distinctly "monarchical," has now got so far as to commend it, and has only to get rid of the familiar doubts about "this particular measure" to be as good a reformer as anybody. From our experience of such cases, we should judge that six months more will make a thorough and most edifying convert of him. Even Ben Butler has come over, but, as usual with persons of his impulsive nature, is too zealous, and proposes to apply the system in fields to which none of its advocates hitherto have proposed to carry it. Civil-service reform associations are being formed in every direction, and especially in this State, with extraordinary rapidity. They spring up in the night, and on the most unpromising soil; and, more wonderful still, they sometimes contain some of the most hardened sinners of the spoils system, men whom no arguments could have brought over, or anything but a sudden perception that the day of judgment was at hand.

Now, what has been the cause of this rapid growth of reform sentiment? Not certainly any new or extraordinary exertions on the part of its apostles. The agitation during the past two years has been somewhat, but not very much, more energetic than before. But its machinery has been almost insignificant in its operations. A few—very few—lectures, a few magazine articles, a few weekly fly sheets, an occasional article in a few—very few—friendly newspapers, an occasional word of encouragement in a sermon, include almost the whole activity of its friends in the field of persuasion. There has been no change in their methods sufficient, or nearly sufficient, to account for the (as we believe) swift and scathing condemnation which the vote this month will pass upon the spoils system in all its branches. The work has been done in the main by the spoilsmen themselves. It is their excesses in defending and pushing their system which have at last made reform inevitable and, as every one now acknowledges, brought it very near.

Nothing that reformers could have said or done in twenty years would have acted on the public mind with the force and directness of the deadlock in the Senate over Mahone's patronage; of Conkling-Platt's resignation and lobbying in company with the Vice-President for reelection; of the assassination of President Garfield by a half-crazed and disappointed office-seeker; of the immediate disregard by President Arthur, in his appointments, of the principles solemnly laid down in his letter of acceptance and inaugural address; of the selection in Massachusetts of the leading enemy of civil-service reform to be Collector of the Port of Boston; of the appointment of Mike Dady to be Superintendent of Public Buildings by Mr. Folger; of the performances of Hubbell as a collector of assessments, with the connivance of a large number of Congressmen; of the attempt of Cameron to subjugate the party in Pennsylvania by the

aid of patronage; of the circulation by the Congressional Committee of a defence of assessments by Senator Hale, and a vituperative defence of the whole spoils system, as a campaign document; of the gross and wholesale prostitution of the service in the departments at Washington to enable Mahone to build up a new and repudiating boss-ship in Virginia; and, finally, of the audacious elevation to the Chairmanship of the Republican Committee in this State, at a most important crisis, of one of the worst products of office-jobbing, and trading, and assessment-levying, and official blackmailing in the person of John F. Smyth. It is these things, and not anything the reformers have been able to do, which are to-day making every Machinist in the country run to ask honest men what he must do to be saved.

Now, what is most remarkable about all this is that it is the second time in the national history that a great cause has unexpectedly triumphed through the excesses of its opponents. It is throwing no discredit on the Abolitionists to say that nothing they did or could do in the way of exposing the evils of slavery, or of appeals to the humanity or sense of justice of either the North or the South, would have brought about emancipation, or even preparation for emancipation, within our time. It was the exhibitions of contempt and hatred for them on the part of the slaveholders which roused the conscience of the North, and opened its ears to abolitionist doctrine. The opposition to the reception or debate of anti-slavery petitions in Congress; the sanction given by the Postmaster-General to the Southern interference with the transmission of anti-slavery documents through the mails; the demand made on Northern legislatures, and the sympathetic hearing it received, for restrictive legislation toward anti-slavery publications; the demand by Southern Governors for the surrender to them for trial of Northern anti-slavery men; the passage and enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Law—these were the things which prepared the North for the last extremity.

Passive and silent resistance on the part of the Slave Power, abstinence from all displays of its strength, or a seeming deference to anti-slavery opinion, while pleading practical difficulties in the way of emancipation, would probably have left the institution of slavery in existence to this day. But it actually precipitated its own downfall by exhibiting in an extreme form its theory of its rights and duties. Day by day it armed the anti-slavery orators with arguments and illustrations of tremendous force. Its written defences became, like Hubbell's assessment circulars and "Campaign Text-Book," the most effective weapons its adversaries could use, and it finally rushed headlong on its ruin; so that at the last, within two short years, millions of pro-slavery men at the North disappeared from the scene as rapidly as the friends of the spoils system are now disappearing, leaving not a rack behind. The political transformation effected by the war was, in fact, not half so wonderful as the moral transformation.

SPAIN.

MARSHAL SERRANO is actively engaged in executing a new *coup* in the political arena of Spain. This time it is again to be a stroke in favor of liberty. The whole life of the old soldier and statesman is full of sudden transitions from policy to policy, from party to party; full of new attitudes. In 1833 he joined the ranks of Maria Christina and her infant daughter Isabella. In 1840 he supported Espartero in his revolt against the Queen Regent. In 1843 he aided Narvaez in overthrowing the regency of Espartero. He became the favorite of the young Queen, but in 1854 entered the revolutionary coalition of Espartero and O'Donnell. In 1856 he was again instrumental in driving Espartero from power and into exile. In 1866 he quelled an insurrection fomented by Prim. In 1868 he and Prim were the chief leaders in the revolution which dethroned Isabella. He was regent under the radically democratic constitution of 1869, minister-president under King Amadeo, and reactionary chief of the executive under the Republic. Sagasta was the head of his cabinet when, at the close of 1874, the armies proclaimed Isabella's son, Alfonso, King, and both statesmen had to resign. Now Sagasta is the Liberal Prime Minister of Alfonso, and Serrano is bent on forming a coalition directed more or less avowedly against him, under the sign of the constitution of 1869.

Almost the whole course, now embracing eight years, of the reign of Alfonso XII. has been marked by a gradual, though not continuous, tendency towards a liberal constitutional régime. The beginning of the reign, however, was strongly reactionary from necessity. The adherents of the republican form of government, just abolished, had to be kept down, and the clergy to be won over by concessions from Carlism, then in arms in all the north of the kingdom. Cánovas del Castillo, the President of Alfonso's first Cabinet—and subsequently again and again Premier—placated the Curia of Rome and the Spanish clergy, and gained the favor of the Moderados, by the restoration of confiscated church property, the prohibition of civil marriages, the closing of Protestant churches, and the suppression of the liberty of education. But scarcely had Carlism succumbed when the tendency of the Government underwent a considerable modification, the supporters of the Administration assuming the part, as well as the name, of Liberal Conservatives. The two attempts on the life of the King, in 1878 and 1879, were naturally followed by retrograde measures, but the then decided victory of Republicanism on the French side of the Pyrenees not only rendered a complete return to despotic ways in the Peninsula impossible, but a partial conciliation of the Progressist and Democratic elements of the Opposition imperative. Sagasta having, with the help of malcontent generals and party chiefs like Martinez Campos, and of Democrats like Martos and Castelar, overthrown the Cabinet of Cánovas del Castillo in February, 1881, easily won the assent of Alfonso to the formation of a coalition Ministry, in which his own party, the Constitutionalists, were to have the lead, and the

more moderately progressive Centralists a considerable share. The general elections to the Cortes, held in August, resulted in a triumph for the Liberal elements of the coalition, and these have since ruled Spain in a way which has seemed to promise a more steady and firm advance on the path of constitutionalism than was possible at periods when triumphant reaction or revolutionary oscillations in France exercised a powerful influence upon Spanish politics.

But this advance does not satisfy the old Marshal, not because it is too much in one direction for a warrior politician accustomed to zigzag movements, but, as he asserts, because it is not consistently direct and free from deviations. He accuses Sagasta of having failed to fulfil his promises of reform, made on assuming power last year; of yielding too much to the wishes and influences of his Centralist associates in the Ministry. This wavering between two policies, one of which is out of date, the Marshal declares to be pernicious. Only a union of all the decidedly Liberal political elements is capable of securing the future of democratic institutions under the present dynasty. In such a union he endeavors to combine the various radical fractions—Dynastic Democrats, Possibilist Republicans, etc.—led by Moret, Martos, Balaguer, Castelar, and Montero Rios. A preliminary condition of a parliamentary majority created on the basis of this combination, he considers to be the reestablishment of the popular constitution of 1869, which issued from the revolution of the preceding year, in lieu of the constitution of 1876, which was the production of reactionary Cortes. If this takes place, the Republicans, excepting perhaps the Socialistic fraction headed by Pi y Margall and the following of Zorrilla, will give up all violent attempts to subvert the monarchical order of things, and henceforward rely on peaceful and legal efforts for the attainment of their object, or abandon it altogether. These declarations of opinion and intention Marshal Serrano suddenly made public a few weeks ago, through the columns of the *Imparcial*, in a guarded yet ostentatious way, and their effect has been as great as the surprise they created. Almost all the party leaders on whose coöperation he counted have declared their concurrence in his scheme. A formal programme embodying it was signed on October 27 by the most prominent of them, and Spain is again on the verge of a momentous crisis—a crisis which appears to be less likely to result in strengthening the throne, by obviating hostile attacks, than in making it a prey to the ambitions and intrigues of its new supporters.

"PARSIFAL" AND ITS CRITICS.

THERE is a close and curious parallelism between the manner in which Darwin's doctrines were at first opposed, and then slowly but gradually accepted by the scientific world, and the manner in which Wagner's theories and works have been received by musical people. Just as Darwin's ideas were at once understood and embraced only by his leading scientific contemporaries—Haeckel, Huxley, Tyndall, Helmholtz—so Wagner's first and best friends were among the principal musicians of the period—Liszt, Bülow, Tausig, Hans Richter, Raff, Franz. Con-

servative people, led by the clergy in one case and the "classicists" in the other, have needed decades to be even partially converted; and if the victory in Wagner's case is as yet not so complete as in Darwin's, this is due solely to the fact that emotional habits of hereditary acquisition are much more deeply rooted in the mind than intellectual convictions acquired by individual experience. The "Parsifal" festival at Bayreuth marks another great step in public recognition of Wagner's genius, the importance of which can only be measured by those who have had occasion to compare the criticisms published in 1876 with those issued this year. Although there has been no lack of fault-finding with "Parsifal," the most cursory reader must have noticed that the average of critical appreciation has risen many degrees, while very few papers have ventured to publish scurrilous articles treating Wagner as a mere impostor and fool, or, like the *London Telegraph*, endeavoring to cover up the weakness of their arguments by the strength of their adjectives. To prove our statement, we shall quote a few appreciative criticisms from leading German and English journals, and, at the same time, examine some of the objections advanced against "Parsifal." No notice will be taken of French papers. Few of them were represented at the festival, although most of the leading composers were there.

Among the opponents of Wagner in Germany and Austria, the most virulent and spiteful are L. Speidel, of the *Vienna Fremdenblatt*, and Dr. Hanslick, of the *Neue Freie Presse*. Yet Speidel sums up his remarks in these words: "If we add together all that is good and significant in 'Parsifal,' we still obtain a neat sum. Since the first performance of 'Lohengrin,' we have not been in a position to bestow praise on Wagner. To-day, circumstances compel us to oppose appreciation to the hard word of condemnation." Speidel, too, was the only critic who pointed out the relations between Schopenhauer's ethical principle—pity—and the central idea of "Parsifal": "Through pity enlightened." This relation Hanslick ignored, wherefore, as usual in such cases, he accused the drama itself of being illogical and obscure in its central idea. In other respects Hanslick has made so many concessions that he might almost be claimed as a convert. Six years ago he described the abandonment of the aria and other operative forms as the ruin of music; now he more modestly admits that Wagner's system of leading motives and constant modulation is regarded by many as the highest progress, and that it is no longer possible to quarrel about these differences of opinion. "Wagner is the greatest living opera composer, and in Germany the only one who can be seriously spoken of in an historic sense." In regard to the creative power displayed in "Parsifal" he says: "For a man of Wagner's age [60], and with his system, it seems to me in 'Parsifal' to continue to be astounding. Any one who can write pieces of the enchanting melodious charm of the flower-girl scene, and of the energy of the final scene in 'Parsifal,' still has control of a power which his youngest contemporaries may envy him." The *London Times* makes a similar statement: "It would be absurd to connect the idea of declining power with a man who, like Wagner, continues to be the youngest of the young, superintending rehearsals, conversing with innumerable friends and admirers, and haranguing the public, without ever showing a sign of fatigue." The distinguished vocal teacher, Professor Engel, of the Berlin *Vossische Zeitung*, who mingles praise and censure in about equal proportions (although years ago an uncompromising enemy), says: "A declining creative power appears to us, strictly speaking, to exist as little as a growing inclination for the obscure

and abstruse." To these testimonials, written, with the exception of that of the *London Times*, by hostile pens, it would be superfluous to add extracts from the columns of panegyrics published by old and confirmed admirers of Wagner. Attention may, however, be called to the comic manoeuvres of some of the recent converts and semi-converts, who try to hide their confusion and inconsistency by distinguishing between themselves and the "fanatical Wagnerites," by which they mean those who were able to appreciate Wagner from the beginning.

Perhaps the only one of Wagner's gifts which none of his opponents have ever dared to question, because the absurdity would have been too glaring, is his genuine theatric instinct. It is Hanslick who calls him "the greatest stage manager in the world," and "Parsifal" "a highly effective stage-work. . . . A drama constructed with extraordinary cleverness, containing perfectly new and dazzling situations, is boldly erected before our eyes." And, in another place: "The born composer for the theatre is evidenced in every scene of this text-book, so sharply and vividly is the inevitable stage effect conceived and anticipated."

In regard to the instrumentation, it is Hanslick again who has, of all the critics, said the neatest thing: "Parsifal" is scored in a surprisingly discreet manner. In the art of orchestration Wagner has not grown old; in 'Parsifal' this art has developed into pure magic, and for every change of mood conjures the most wonderful sounds in infinite shades and variety." In their statements regarding Wagner's poetry and the peculiar words used in it, the adversaries have grown more cautious since the exposure of Paul Lindau by Hans von Wolzogen, who showed that, whereas in Wagner's Nibelung poems only thirty archaic words are introduced, for the sake of local color, there are in the first sixty pages of Goethe's poems no less than 200 expressions unknown before his day. And it need not be stated that a poet-composer has much more excuse for such liberties than a literary poet, because music raises these words into a higher emotional sphere, where such peculiarities, by Lindau's own admission, are not at all noticed. Lindau has since been converted, and his letters in the *Kölnische Zeitung* have been among the most sympathetic written; but Speidel renews the old charge, and asserts that one part of the poem of "Parsifal" is half-German, and the other part un-German, the words being translated from mediæval German and used in a perverted sense; to which we might, without admitting this, reply, in the words of Hanslick, that "in all of Wagner's operas the music has succeeded in toning down the defects of the poem, and in adding to the beauty of its good points." It is only when the poems are read alone that these archaic words sound odd; and it must be said here, once for all, and emphatically, that most of the mistakes incurred by Wagnerian critics are due to the fact that they will persist in treating Wagner, first as an absolute musician, and again as a literary poet, in spite of his protestations that he must be judged only as a tone-poet and dramatist in one. The absurd modern journalistic custom which makes time the first of all considerations, even in art criticism, obliged most of the critics at Bayreuth to write a synopsis of the drama before they had seen it; and we noticed at least half-a-dozen cases in which the estimate formed from the text-book and piano-score alone was greatly modified in Wagner's favor in subsequent letters. Mr. E. Prout, writing for the *London Athenæum*, frankly confesses: "I have considerably modified my views since writing the preliminary notice of the work. . . . As my object is not to take sides either with or

against Wagner, but simply to arrive at the truth, I believe it to be my only honest and straightforward course to say candidly that I was altogether mistaken in my first estimate of the general character and tendency of the work."

This confession is made with especial reference to the religious question involved in the presentation on the stage of scenes so closely parallel with events in the life of Christ. On this point it is interesting to hear the opinions of critics of different nationalities. Some very orthodox sheets characterized these scenes as "blasphemous," but all critics of note, so far as we have discovered, took an opposite view. As the English are considered an orthodox people, we may listen to them first. The *Athenæum* says: "Nobody finds any impropriety in looking at a painting of the Last Supper, nor in listening to the words of Christ as set to music by Bach in his 'Passion According to St. Matthew.' Wagner has in the first act of 'Parsifal' combined the two arts." "So deeply reverent was the spirit of all the performers, that the remark was made by many who were present that the scene was the most impressive religious service they had ever attended." "None of the many thousands who have attended the Passion Play need fear any violence being done to their religious feelings by the performances of 'Parsifal.'" Similar sentiments are expressed by the *London Times*, *Academy*, *Saturday Review* (which speaks of the Liebesmahl scene as "most reverent and earnestly impressive"), and other papers. Nevertheless, all these papers agree that "Parsifal" could not be produced on the London stage on account of religious prejudices.

Among the German papers all shades of opinion are represented. Lindau's views are similar to those expressed in the English journals. Hanslick says: "I must remark here at once that the ecclesiastic scenes in 'Parsifal' were far from giving me the objectionable impression which I and others had anticipated from a perusal of the text-book. The actions represented are of a religious kind, but, with all their earnest dignity, not at all in the style of the church, but entirely in the style of the opera." The *Frankfort Zeitung* thinks "Parsifal" cannot fail of popular success, because thousands will go to see it merely to revive old impressions of how it looks inside a church; and in this cynical view there is a grain of philosophy, for many who take a superficial view of things will join a writer in the *Musical World* in looking upon "Parsifal" as "two solemn services of the Roman Catholic Church with an Alhambra ballet . . . separating one from the other." The *Vossische Zeitung* suggests an idea which the thoughtful reader will do well to reflect on. It is not absolute orthodoxy, Professor Engel thinks, that will object to a dramatization of its religious ideals; but those who have once admitted doubt and criticism may fear that what they have accepted as reality and revelation may, by the artist's imagination, be transformed into a myth.

Many years ago Wagner expressed, in strong language, his conviction of the inferiority of Christian to Germanic myths. The partial inconsistency in the choice of such a subject as "Parsifal" may well be pardoned in view of the admirable result. Of course many of the critics have, as usual, objected to the selection of a mythological subject: "What's the Holy Grail to the modern Germans, or modern Germans to the Holy Grail?" they exclaim. What, we answer, were the legends of "Lohengrin," of "Tannhäuser," of all the Nibelung deities, before Wagner made them part of our every-day thoughts? The poet's duty is not to pander to the present interests of the populace, but to open their minds to new fields of poetic beauty. That

myth is better suited for musical illustration than history is proved by the fact that of Shakespeare's plays those alone have been frequently selected by musicians which contain a mythical element. The anatomical, unpoetic nature of some German critics has never been better exposed than by their objections to Wagner's revival of the beautiful national mythology. Equally absurd is the objection repeatedly urged against the characters in "Parsifal," that no "human" interest attaches to them! Will the critics please tell us whether these characters are to be designated as mineral, vegetable, ontological, or what?

Professor Ehrlich has made himself notorious by the reiterated assertion that there is nothing new in the musical form and style of "Parsifal"; and he gets so worked up over this great discovery that he can hardly talk of anything else in his *Gegenwart* articles. But what of it? It would be absurd to expect an artist at sixty-nine to make as great an advance in form as "Tannhäuser" marked over "Rienzi," or "Tristan" over "Tannhäuser." In "Tristan," Wagner reached his ideal, and thenceforth composed in that style, which he considered best suited for a music-drama. This style is a new musical logic, and a new musical grammar of modulation; and its individuality, like Chopin's, is so pronounced that any imitator is at once detected as a plagiarist. Of this individuality Dr. Hanslick has said, with his usual felicity of diction and illustration: "Just as that Babylonian ruler had his name burnt on every brick that helped to form great architectural works, to bear witness after thousands of years, so the author of 'Parsifal' has impressed an invisible R. W., as it were, on every bar. With perfect certainty, scholars will, in future times, recognize every page of this score as his." One peculiarity, it must be admitted, distinguishes "Parsifal" from its predecessors. In none of these do we find any ideas or phrases suggesting his other works, except once in the "Meistersinger," where there is a designed reference to "Tristan." But in "Parsifal" there are several passages recalling its author's previous works; and Ehrlich is quite right when he asserts that echoes from the "Götterdämmerung," "Lohengrin," and especially "Tristan" and the Nibelung Trilogy, are heard. But Professor Ehrlich has not sufficient acuteness to perceive that instead of disproving the artistic excellence of the system of leading motives, these instances are most admirable illustrations of its grandeur and beauty. When, in the third act, *Parsifal* comes on the stage disguised in a helmet, we hear sounds reminding us of the Nibelung's Tarnhelm, by means of which he could make himself invisible. When, in the second act, *Kundry* is conjured by *Klingsor*, and rises up from the ground in a blue light, the orchestra reminds us of a similar scene in "Götterdämmerung," where *Wotan* conjures *Erda*. The similarity in the situations here is so great that we unconsciously expect a similar musical coloring. To cite only one more case: the frequent suggestions of "Tristan" in *Amfortas's* music follow from the great resemblance between the fate of *Tristan* and *Amfortas*, both of whom are the victims of an improper passion, both wounded, and otherwise similar in character. It should be remembered, however, that these resemblances are slight, lying often in the orchestration alone, or in some peculiarity of modulation.

This is the place, too, to correct another misconception in regard to the leading motives. Hanslick and others are continually pointing out as a shortcoming the necessity of memorizing all the motives. There is no such necessity any more than in the case of a Beethoven symphony. Only, those who hear "Parsifal" for the first

time will naturally find their enjoyment much greater if they previously memorize the motives. If, however, they have opportunity to hear the work more than once, such a proceeding is entirely superfluous. Nor can it be said too often that leading motives are not stereotyped phrases occurring every time that the persons to whom they are assigned appear on the stage. It would be difficult to find a case in "*Parsifal*" where the same motives appear exactly alike in two places. Take the *Parsifal* motive for an example. In the case just referred to, where *Parsifal* appears in a helmet, the motive is in a subdued, mysterious minor mode; in the second act, where *Parsifal* appears in the flower-garden after having slain the knights, it has an agitated, heroic form; in the third act, where he is anointed King, it sounds broad and majestic; and at the end of the second act, where he is ignominiously thrust out of the hall by *Gurnemanz*, with the words, "Seek thyself, gander, a goose," it assumes a curiously grotesque form.

The odd inconsistency of Wagner's opponents, and their determination to find fault, happen what may, were again betrayed by what occurred at the last performance of "*Parsifal*," on August 29. Wagner is always exceedingly nervous and excited when one of his works is produced, and he is so opposed to appearing in public that he often leaves the theatre before the end of the last act. But occasionally the audience compel him to come forward and address them. Now, it is a matter of history that each of his speeches, delivered on prominent occasions, has been pronounced by his opponents very malapropos and full of insulting allusions to various people. He has been regularly counselled, therefore, to hold his tongue and not address the public. Probably Wagner took this advice to heart. At any rate, after the last notes of his new work had been played at Bayreuth, he addressed the artists on the stage, thanking them for what had been done, but entirely ignoring the public. In fact, the audience could not see him at all, as he was down in the "mystic abyss," where he had gone to conduct the last act. The next morning leading Vienna and Berlin papers published notes pointing out Wagner's "insulting way of ignoring the audience!" The comic history of Wagnerian criticism, if it should ever be written, would make a very entertaining volume.

THE ORATORS OF THE OPPOSITION.

LONDON, October 7, 1882.

AFTER the calm of the last seven weeks—for, since the adjournment of Parliament, public attention has been exclusively occupied by the events in Egypt—the notes of political warfare are again beginning to be heard. The autumn months when Westminster is deserted are with us the season for party demonstrations over the country at large, the time when the leading men on both sides go round addressing large gatherings of their supporters in the great towns—the richer people at dinners, the humbler sort at evening meetings. This practice, which adds greatly to the fatigue of public life in England, is comparatively recent. Formerly, a statesman of the first rank seldom spoke on politics out of Parliament, except, of course, in his own constituency, or when, now and then, after some achievement or in some special crisis, he was invited to appear in some great provincial city. The present custom seems to date from the vehement agitation against the foreign policy of Lord Beaconsfield's Government which was carried on from 1876 to 1880. Then the Liberals, finding themselves in a decided minority in Parliament, and unable to shake the steady adherence of the Conservative majority to its chief,

betook themselves to the country, and discharged volley after volley of their heaviest artillery against the Tory Government on provincial platforms. The triumph which they won at the general election of 1880 was ascribed by the startled Conservatives to this assiduous stumping of the country, and when these Conservatives found themselves in Opposition, they resolved to employ the same tactics. Thus during the last three autumn recesses we have had a well-sustained fire, from the Tory leaders, of denunciations of Mr. Gladstone and his policy, both foreign and domestic. The Liberals have felt bound to answer; and thus that valuable rest which Parliamentary vacations used to give is now gone, and probably will not return till a period of political lassitude such as we had in 1875 again appears. The newspapers, however, rejoice in having their columns filled by these harangues during the slack season, and the local politicians through the country enjoy the opportunities given them of seeing and hearing the leaders of the two parties, as well as the temporary stimulus which the appearance of a Parliamentary star gives to their party organizations.

This year it is the Opposition who fire the first shot, and Sir Stafford Northcote has courageously undertaken to fire it in the very centre and stronghold of Liberalism, the West of Scotland. Glasgow, one of the largest constituencies in Britain, returns three members, who, in spite of the minority-vote system, are all Liberals, and, indeed, Liberals of an advanced type. There is, of course, a strong Conservative section among the richer people of the city; but the Scotch workingmen, who in the Scotch boroughs are omnipotent, are Radicals almost to a man, and it can hardly be with the hope of making any impression on them that Sir Stafford begins his campaign in Scotland. Apart from this—which is, after all, a small matter, because a speech made by an English political leader is made to the whole country, which reads it next morning at breakfast—the Tory orators have considerable difficulties to face this year; they have scanty materials out of which to frame an impeachment of Mr. Gladstone's Government, and they have in their own ranks few first-rate advocates who will know how to make the most of those materials. As to the former point, I need say little, for your readers know already that the end of the Parliamentary session left the Liberal Ministry stronger than it had been for several months before. The capitulation of the House of Lords on the Arrears Bill, the imprudence of Lord Salisbury in provoking a contest which his followers refused to support him in, the tact and moderation displayed by Mr. Gladstone, produced a deep impression on the country. Even those who do not like or trust the Prime Minister doubted whether any change from him would be a change for the better. Since Parliament adjourned there has been a diminution of serious crimes in Ireland; and the conviction of several murderers, with the reported discovery of others, is believed to have produced a tranquillizing effect there. If the horizon is still dark enough, there is at least more light than in the terrible time which followed the Phoenix Park murders.

Still more important in strengthening the Ministry have been the victories in Egypt. An enterprise which seemed full of perils has been carried through with a speed and completeness which reflects credit not only on the General and the troops, but on the Ministers at home who organized the expedition and chose the commanders. The applause of the German and Austrian press, the envious comments which we receive from France and Spain, even the manifest annoyance of Russia, are all taken as tributes to the energy displayed by England, as admis-

sions that she again holds that position in Europe which it was supposed had been lost by the timidity or hesitation of Liberal Governments. Even that section, weak perhaps in Parliament, but not so weak among the working-class voters, which objected altogether to our interference in Egypt, has had its mouth stopped by the collapse of Arabi, whom it is now less easy to represent as a national leader, and by the shortness of the war, which will involve less expense than we had been led to fear. The Tory speakers will, therefore, lose the opportunity they expected of condemning the military slackness and incapacity of a Liberal Government, and must seek out some other matter for censure. It is not hard to foretell what that matter will be. But as it will soon be before you in their own words, I had better devote the rest of this letter to some remarks on the speakers themselves, whose zeal and activity deserve better fortune than recent events seem to have prepared for them.

Since the death of Sir Robert Peel and the alienation of his school from the bulk of the Conservative party, the Conservatives have always suffered from a want of popular speakers. Mr. Disraeli's rapid rise and ultimate leadership were due to his being the only first-rate man they had in the House of Commons. At present they have only four men who can be placed in the front rank of public speakers, even taking the not very high standard which we are accustomed to apply. Of these four—Lord Cairns, Lord Salisbury, Sir Stafford Northcote, and Mr. Edward Gibson—the first, although in point of intellectual power far ahead of all the others, may be almost left out of account, for he rarely addresses a popular audience, and his gifts of debate, brilliant as they are, are better fitted for Parliament than for a platform. Of the three others, Lord Salisbury is the most generally effective. His style, without the higher qualities of imaginative expression or refined and exquisite diction, has force, clearness, incisiveness. He can make a point tell, can sharpen an epigram. He has no power of touching the emotions, and indeed never attempts those emotional flights by which some of Mr. Gladstone's and Mr. Bright's chief successes have been won. But he speaks with earnestness and conviction; nor is he content to remain in the region of level commonplace. He feels the necessity of having some sort of philosophical theory, some general principles, underlying his political dogmas, and occasionally develops such a theory in an ingenious and attractive way. If mere speaking could make a statesman, he would take a very high place; not that any of his speeches have a permanent literary merit, or will ever be read by any one but politicians—he has not enough either of originality in thought or of poetical felicity in phrase to deserve such an honor—but that they are vigorous and stimulating statements of the points which are for the moment effective, shafts which find out the weak places in an opponent's armor, onslaughts so bold and eager that they put heart into followers and make them rally to the flag. Lord Salisbury's speeches are useful to his own side, both because they excite them and because they furnish materials which inferior men can use over again, while his opponents cannot afford to leave them unanswered. Their real weakness lies partly in the flimsiness of their reasonings, for they are often built on very slender premises, but still more in the distrust felt in Lord Salisbury's own wisdom and constancy of purpose.

Sir Stafford Northcote is as unlike his colleague, both in character and in oratory, as one able man can be to another. He is in reality a much sounder thinker, and on the whole an abler man, than the more showy Marquis. He has a wonderful power of mastering a subject,

and a scarcely less remarkable capacity for finding arguments on the spur of the moment with which to support his own thesis and refute his antagonist. He never vapors or talks nonsense: whether you agree with him or not, you feel that there is solid substance in his speeches, something which is worth considering and replying to. He can sketch out a programme for his party as plausibly, can detect the faults of an opponent's programme, and criticise it in detail, as acutely, as any English statesman. But he wants the *verve* and dash which Lord Salisbury possesses, and which makes him tell on an audience. There is a sort of levelness and tameness about Sir Stafford's style as well as his delivery which makes him seem commonplace even when he is not. No one in listening to him feels inclined to relieve his feelings by a cheer. Very sensible, very ingenious, very fair and candid—these are the warmest words of praise which his best performances win. His character for judgment stands much higher than Lord Salisbury's, and would make him the unquestioned chief of the party had he more of what people call "backbone." He does not want courage, but he does want decision, and, what is not less important, the air of being decided. His own followers complain that he is too fair, too considerate, and, in their want of obedience to him, commit indiscretions from which he would have saved them. He does not inspire or excite those with whom he comes in contact; or, as you express it in America, he is not "magnetic." However, he is after all a very able man, of great experience and unsullied reputation, and the Tory leader in the House of Commons; so that provincial audiences receive him with heartiness, and even the Radical municipality of Glasgow pays him the compliment of presenting him with the freedom of their city.

Mr. Edward Gibson is a personage of much less note than the two of whom I have spoken, and has become conspicuous only during the last three years. Perhaps he would not have become conspicuous at all had not Irish questions formed the staple of debate in the House of Commons. With these, as an Irish barrister who has filled the office of Attorney-General for Ireland, he was of course familiar; and, as Ireland returns few Tory members, and only one other of any political eminence (Mr. Plunkett), the task of attacking and criticising the Irish policy of the present Ministry devolved mainly on Mr. Gibson. In discharging that task he showed a readiness, skill, and force which rapidly raised him to a leading position in his party. Success stimulated his ambition, and he has now ventured into general politics, and is welcomed by Conservative associations all over England as a vigorous assailant of the Liberal Government and Radicalism in general. Although an Irishman, his oratory has nothing distinctively Celtic about it except its facility. He is not flowery nor emotional; he is a sober, hard-headed, clear-headed lawyer, who is making the best case for his own side and dissecting that of his adversaries, yet with more fairness and a greater air of honest conviction than lawyers in Parliament usually attain. Ireland is an exciting subject, especially to Irishmen; but Mr. Gibson never loses the balance of his judgment in discussing it, and has won great authority and respect in the House of Commons by this moderation not less than by his power of fluent argument. However, he has not distinguished himself on any other topic, nor perhaps would he fill so large a place but for the oratorical poverty of his party.

The other men of mark whom it contains—Sir Richard Cross, Sir Michael Hicks Beach, Mr. W. H. Smith, and the Duke of Richmond—are all tame and uninteresting speakers, although

all, and especially the two latter, are respected for their practical ability as administrators. Mr. Plunkett possesses real eloquence, but too seldom displays it to rank among the combatant members of his party. Lord Cranbrook is a fluent declaimer, who can work up into his own heat the audience that listens to him, but he produces no effect on the country. Among the others there is no one important enough to require special description. Yet the Conservative party does not greatly suffer by this deficiency in popular gifts. It rests upon instincts and interests which would make it strong if it had nobody who could put five sentences pleasantly together; and the day of its return to office would probably be nearer than is now thought, if it wanted the most brilliant of its speakers—for Lord Salisbury's errors in judgment do it more harm than his orations accomplish in quickening its aggressive life. Y.

LE ROI S'AMUSE.

PARIS, October 11, 1882.

VICTOR HUGO is fast assuming the proportions of a demigod. He can witness in his lifetime his own apotheosis. Great processions passed before him on the occasion of his entering a new decade of his already long life. He receives all this homage with grace and candor: there is nothing surprising in it for him. He cannot be said to be vain or proud. Such words are not made for him: he is not made after the common pattern of mankind. The tragical fall of the Second Empire seemed to be simply the accomplishment of the prophecies of the 'Châtiments.' From his rock on the ocean he had said to Napoleon III., then at the height of his triumph:

"Ah! tu finiras bien par crier, misérable!"

Providence works for Hugo, and works with him. He has said many times: the poet is the prophet—he alone sees into the dark abyss of futurity. Kings and Emperors are his inferiors, not his equals. The Emperor of Brazil called first on him. Is he not something much greater than an earthly monarch?

"Nous portons tous les deux au front une couronne."

He represents the people; he represents Humanity. I see him occasionally in the Senate; he comes in and takes his place on the benches of the Left; he does not pay any attention to the debate; he remains quiet, smiling. With his white beard, he looks like a god of antiquity. His colleagues treat him as such; he is an idol. It has sometimes seemed strange to me that he should have become so quiet, so serene, so happy; it must be supposed that old age softens everything, for Victor Hugo has gone through terrible ordeals. He lost his children under the most painful circumstances, and he has now only two grandchildren, between whom he likes to be photographed.

The great event of our next theatrical season will be the representation of "Le Roi s'amuse." The rehearsals are taking place now. Victor Hugo is not able to give much attention to them, for his mind has completely lost the critical faculty. M. Perrin, the Director of the Français, is fortunately a critic and a scholar of much eminence, and under his direction it is to be hoped that the drama of Hugo will be well studied. Nothing can be more extraordinary than these daily rehearsals; they take place between two and five in the afternoon. Fancy the immense theatre in the dark, only four or five persons in the chairs of the pit; at the front of the stage a sort of large box, from which a little light is thrown on the stage, and which contains the Director and the prompter; on the stage itself a few accessories (it is the technical word), and the actors and actresses playing in their everyday clothes. Fancy *Hernani* in a

pea-jacket, the *King of France* or *Charles V.* with felt hats; the illusion of costume is completely suppressed, and the actors are obliged to give their attention wholly to the intellectual part of their rôle. I have admired the great trouble which M. Perrin takes with his comedians: every attitude is studied, every intonation is the object of a remark. The comedians are a vain race—they are not always very willing to give in; but they all have to bow finally before the authority of the Director. M. Perrin has always been a great and even enthusiastic admirer of Victor Hugo, and he spares no trouble to give us a representation of the "Roi s'amuse" worthy to be compared to the representations of "Hernani." The drama itself is not so good, in my opinion—not so simple, so clear; but the public has been made quite familiar with the subject by the opera of "Rigoletto," which is simply the "Roi s'amuse" set to music. All over the world, it may be said, the principal characters of the drama are now well known. *Francis I.* has been in the opera transformed into the Italian *Duke*, and *Triboulet*, his jester, has become *Rigoletto*; but nothing has been changed in the situations.

Victor Hugo began the "Roi s'amuse" in June, 1832, at a time when Paris was still in a revolutionary state, when the Republicans made insurrections, when they fought at the cloister of Saint Merry. The times were not very favorable to literature: the Romantic honeymoon which had begun under the Restoration, had now come to an end. Victor Hugo had offended the monarchical party in "Marion Delorme," which he wrote before 1830; in the "Roi s'amuse" he gave an odious character to Francis I. His best friends were uneasy; the enthusiasts of the first representations of "Hernani" had now grown older, and had been sobered by the great political events; and, curiously enough, all the Liberals were then Classics, and all the Romantics, or nearly all, belonged to the party of "l'autel et le trône"—they were Legitimists. The *National*, which was edited by the men who came to power in 1830, attacked the Romantic writers with the greatest violence. Victor Hugo had made his début as a royalist; the writers of the new school all stood for Gothic ideas, Gothic churches, Gothic institutions. Victor Hugo found himself toward 1832 abandoned on both sides: by the Liberals he was abandoned as a Romantic, by the Legitimists as one who had accepted too rapidly the results of the Revolution of 1830. The Republicans as well as the men of the *juste-milieu*, the Constitutionalists, looked with contempt on the poetical and dramatic work of a man who affected to ignore the rules and beauties of classical antiquity. In the "Roi s'amuse" Victor Hugo flattered the passions of the enemies of the monarchical principle, yet he could not count upon their support.

During the rehearsals Victor Hugo was absent; he was spending the month of September with his children in the country. He came back in October. The Minister who had the theatres under his care, M. d'Argout, had heard that the new drama contained passages offensive to the friends of monarchy, and asked to see the manuscript. Victor Hugo refused to give it, but he consented to have an interview with M. d'Argout. Curiously enough, he was introduced to the Minister's rooms by M. Mérimée, the famous novelist, who was then a modest *chef du cabinet*. M. d'Argout asked Victor Hugo if it was true that there were allusions in the new drama directed against King Louis Philippe. Victor Hugo said, in answer, that he never made any allusions, that he always spoke directly; that he had painted Francis I., and only Francis I.; that really it seemed impossible to find any resemblance between him and Louis Philippe. M.

d'Argout said that Francis I. was one of the most popular kings of France, and he regretted that Victor Hugo should have found it necessary to paint him in odious colors. He, however, declared himself satisfied, and did not insist any more on the subject.

The disciples of the new school were present at the first representation; they were headed by Théophile Gautier, the poet, and by Célestin Nanteuil, the engraver and lithographer—a giant with a long beard and a very soft and kind countenance. I knew Nanteuil in later years. He was the most extraordinary enthusiast; he always expressed excessive ideas with the voice of a girl and the modesty of a child. He was kind; he had much talent; but he underrated himself, and he spent his talent in the dark—in illustrations of popular books, or even of romances and theatrical works. These two leaders had enlisted about one hundred and fifty young men, who took their places in the pit and in the second gallery. They spent the time in singing the "Marseillaise" and the "Carmagnole" till the curtain was lifted. A moment before, a rumor went through the theatre: the life of Louis Philippe had been again attempted. This "threw a cold," as the French say. The rumor was false, but it seemed a bad omen for the drama. Among the spectators were three Princes of Orléans. The Théâtre-Français was their theatre, and they did not seem to be afraid of the allusions which had frightened M. d'Argout. Alfred de Musset was there, with Méri-mée, with Eugène Delacroix, the painter; Armand Carrel, the editor of the *National*; Alexandre Dumas, Scribe, and many stars of the second magnitude.

The part of *Francis I.* was played by an actor named Perrier, now forgotten. He had no elegance, no distinction, and he could not save the part, which is naturally odious. Mlle. Anaïs, who was an elegant *grande coquette*, had not the passion necessary for the part of *Blanche*. Beauvallet was very good in the part of the bravo *Sultabadil*. But even before the beginning of the first act, it was evident that things would not go well; the magnetism of the audience was repulsive instead of attractive. When once this kind of hostility is felt, the smallest incident becomes the occasion of a storm. Some of the verses, it must be said, are eminently ludicrous. The pleasantries of the courtiers of Francis are as heavy as the stone which the bear throws on the head of the man asleep, in *La Fontaine's* fable. *Triboulet*, the buffoon, is not often amusing. One of the auditors was heard to say: "Si le Roi s'amuse, je ne m'amuse pas, moi."

In this hostile state of mind of the public, how could verses like these be received?—

"Je veux mettre des ailes
A mon donjon royal!—C'est en faire un moulin."

Murmurs were heard all the time—exclamations of "Oh! oh!" The actors lost their presence of mind, and made mistakes. Hisses were heard after a while, and then the representation became a perfect storm. The public would no longer listen in patience, it would no longer be moved, even when *Triboulet* speaks to his daughter in admirable verses—even when *Saint-Vallier* makes his fine tirades, when *Blanche* arrives on the stage, with her hair dishevelled, mad with fear, with shame, with horror. The charm was broken; the passion which had kept "*Hernani*" afloat was no longer to be found.

The last act seemed too realistic—the famous act which has inspired Verdi with his sublime quartette, the musical page which Rossini proclaimed the finest of our time. When *Triboulet* holds his daughter in the bag which he believes contains the cadaver of *Francis I.*, a man screamed in the pit, "Out with it!" ("Vide ton

sac"); and this stupid pleasantry made everybody laugh. The tumult was deafening; the actors seemed to move in a pantomime, as nobody caught what they said. The curtain fell, and when, according to an old custom, Ligier came to say: "The piece which we have had the honor of representing before you is by M. Victor Hugo," he could not even make himself heard.

The next day, M. d'Argout pronounced the interdiction of the play; so it was only played once. Victor Hugo complained, instituted a lawsuit, asked for damages, and spoke himself before the competent court. His speech ended thus: "There has been only one great man in our century, Napoleon; and only one great thing, liberty. We have no longer the great man; let us try to have the great thing." Simplicity has never been the characteristic of Victor Hugo.

It is not difficult to prophesy that the approaching representation of "*Le Roi s'amuse*" will be more quiet than the first. Fifty years have elapsed. Everybody feels what is due to the old age of Victor Hugo; everybody is inclined to do homage to his genius, whatever may have been his vagaries in late years. "Dormitit Homerus." He will himself assist at this first representation of his drama, somewhat as a remnant of past ages. It is a great pity that our first modern actress, Sarah Bernhardt, has left the part of *Blanche* to Mlle. Bartet. Alas! she has left the French Theatre; she leads a meteoric, a cometary life, which will land her God knows where. She will have one, two theatres of her own. She has made her son of eighteen years the manager of one. She has been married. She has asked Louise Abbema, her friend, to paint the curtain of one of her new theatres, and she is represented on it in the most dramatic circumstances of her life—in a balloon, on her way to America, etc. She has lost none of her wonderful qualities, but her oddities are growing into manias. She cannot be vulgar, though she tries in every way to vulgarize herself. Everybody will regret her when the "*Roi s'amuse*" is played. "Pends-toi, brave Crillon; on s'est battu sans toi."

Correspondence.

THE FLAGS OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Björnstjerne Björnson sends me the enclosed circular-letter, a copy of which he begs me to forward to you with the request that you would have the kindness to answer the questions contained therein through your valuable paper. You are probably aware that there is at the present time a constitutional struggle of considerable magnitude raging throughout Norway, and that Björnson and Sverdrup are the leaders of the Liberal Opposition, which during a long series of years has had, and still has, an overwhelming majority in the national Parliament (Storting). Among the many important questions which are at present being agitated by this party is the "purification of the flag"—i. e., the removal of the "union mark" in the upper corner, which is apt to give the impression to foreign nations that Norway is a dependency of Sweden. The Liberal party has no desire to sever the union with Sweden, as has been falsely asserted in the telegrams to the Associated Press, but it merely wishes to have the flag so made that it will not misrepresent the Norse people before the world, but boldly proclaim its independence. The Government press has attempted to discourage this movement by asserting that a change in the flag would be sure to injure the

commerce of Norway (which is far greater than that of Sweden), and it is in order to have this question settled that Mr. Björnson has taken the liberty to appeal to the editors of the principal papers in all the great seaports having commercial relations with Norway. Hoping that you will favor him with a reply, I remain, respectfully,

HJALMAR H. BOYESSEN.

NEW YORK, October 25, 1882.

[We have not room to print the circular referred to by Professor Boyesen, which is embellished by colored representations of the Swedish and Norwegian flags, showing that they have only the Union Jack in common. Björnson, after a statement of the nature of the peculiar union of the two countries—"exclusively a personal one," through the King of Sweden being also the King of Norway—puts the following questions:

"(1) If the Swedish and the Norwegian flags both were without the emblem of union, and thus what we call 'pure' flags, would they not also convey a 'purer' conception of the absolute independence of the countries?"

"(2) Would it hurt the commerce or freight-carrying business of Sweden or Norway in America, if their flags were without the emblem of union?"

To the first question, *ex vi termini*, there can be but one answer—in the affirmative. Nor, secondly, can we imagine that any change in the flags would alter the commercial relations of the two countries to the United States, or have any effect upon the spirit of enterprise which makes Norway's ships outnumber Sweden's upon the ocean, and Sweden's commerce greatly surpass Norway's in volume and importance.—ED. NATION.]

A QUESTION OF GERMAN SYNTAX.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a review of Sawyer's "German Grammar" the *Nation* of October 19 says:

"But few blemishes betray that German is not the author's native language. On page 106 we find the rule that the pronoun follows the sex (and not the grammatical gender) in 'Ein Mädchen die etwas von sich hält,' and 'Welches Weib die zehn Groschen hat.' The contrary rule generally holds good in the best writers."

You have here hit upon a point in German syntax which, if it is to be discussed at all, deserves more careful treatment. If, however, only a brief statement is to be made, Professor Sawyer's is more nearly correct than his critic's.

Professor Whitney says:

"As a general rule, the pronoun of the third person, in the singular, takes the gender of the noun to which it relates. Excepted from this rule are such words as *Weib*, which are neuter, though designating female persons; also diminutives of personal appellations, such as *Mädchen*, *Fräulein*, *Knäblein*: a pronoun referring to one of these usually follows the natural gender, instead of the grammatical" ("German Grammar," § 154, 1).

So Heyse's "Schulgrammatik," edition of 1872, page 362, reads:

"Wenn Personen mit sächlichen Substantiven benannt werden, namentlich mit Verkleinerungswörtern (wie: das Söhnchen, Mädchen, Fräulein, etc.), verkleinerten Eigennamen (wie: Hanschen, Gretchen, etc.), oder den Wörtern das Weib, das Frauenzimmer: so gebraucht man ein Adjektiv oder Pronomen im Verhältnisse der Beziehung zu einem solchen Substantiv in der Regel in der männlichen oder weiblichen Geschlechtsform, lässt also im Fortgange der Rede das Sprachgeschlecht dem natürlichen Geschlechte weichen. Dies geschieht jedoch allgemeiner beim weiblichen als beim männlichen Geschlecht, und um so notwendiger, je entfernter und loser das Beziehungsverhältnis ist."

Finally, Sanders's 'Wörterbuch der Hauptschwierigkeiten in der deutschen Sprache,' edition of 1870, the most recent authority, contains the following:

"Fügung nach dem Sinn: 1) Namentlich bei Fürwörtern, in Bezug auf das natürliche statt des grammatischen Geschlechts: a) Verkleinerte weibliche Namen: *Das* (nicht: *die*) fleissige Hännchen, etc. Dagegen: *Wie* befindet sich Hännchen? *Sie* (nicht: *es*) ist wohl. Mundartlich freilich auch hier das Neutrum, s. zahlreiche Belege in Auerbach's Dorfgeschichten, etc. . . . —c) Bei Fräulein finden sich selbst die davorstehenden Artikel, etc., im Femininum (neben dem Neutrum). —o) Das Mädchen, häufiger folgt *sie*, etc., als *es*, etc. . . . —s) Ein Weib, *das*, etc.; *es*, etc.; häufiger: *die*, etc.; *sie*, etc., und in Vermischung beider Fügungen."

On considering these statements and examining the instances of this idiom which occur so often in German literature and in German conversation, it is apparent that agreement according to grammatical gender takes place only when the neuter substantive, as such, is distinctly in mind; but as soon as this impression fades, and only the personality referred to by the substantive is prominent in the mind, agreement according to natural gender at once takes place. So a relative pronoun immediately following its antecedent, especially when the pronoun is restrictive, readily (but not necessarily) agrees in grammatical gender with its antecedent, but a personal or a possessive pronoun, coming a little further on, almost invariably follows the natural gender.

Furthermore, a desire to speak accurately, when not accompanied by a thorough knowledge of those syntactical laws of which grammatical rules are but the development, often leads even good writers to twist their mother-tongue into a constrained and artificial form. So some Germans would say: "Ich habe das Mariechen gestern gesehen; es sollte mich nicht wundern wenn *es* nicht lange lebe." It is the same ignorant seeking after correctness that leads some among us to say: "It looks so *prettily*, but twenty-five cents are too much for it."

Very respectfully, GEORGE HEMPL.
LA PORTE, IND., October 22, 1882.

[Our remark had reference strictly to the *relative* pronoun immediately following the noun in the sentences quoted, and we qualified it by saying: "The contrary rule *generally* holds good in the best writers." Neither Professor Whitney nor Heyse contradicts us; both elucidate the subject with reference to the *personal* or *possessive* pronoun following the noun more or less remotely. We fully agree with their conclusions as summed up by Mr. Hempl. But does he not adopt our view when he states that "a *relative* pronoun immediately following its antecedent, especially when the pronoun is restrictive, *readily* (but not necessarily) agrees in grammatical gender with its antecedent"? With all deference to Sanders's "häufiger: *die*," it remains to be shown that the best writers do generally say: "Welches Weib *die*," etc., and "Ein Mädchen *die*," etc.—ED. NATION.]

THE MONITOR AT HAMPTON ROADS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In my 'Young Folks' History of the War for the Union,' which you were kind enough to commend at the time of publication, occurs the following sentence (p. 235):

"The authorities at Washington, frightened at the prospect of a visit from the *Merrimac*, had telegraphed to have the *Monitor* sent there

as soon as she should arrive at Fortress Monroe; but Captain Marston, thinking it important to do what he could to save the rest of the fleet, ordered Lieutenant John L. Worden, her commander, to go to the aid of the *Minnesota*."

Exceptions have been taken to this passage by some of the participators in the event, and as it has seemed to me important to settle the question of responsibility for the action of the *Monitor* on that ever-memorable Sunday, I have been at some pains to investigate the facts through official sources not easily attainable when the earlier histories of the war were written. From these it appears that the Navy Department concentrated at Hampton Roads five frigates, principally in expectation of the coming of the *Merrimac*; that the *Monitor*, then building, was urged to completion, and ordered to go there on the 20th of February; and that upon the solicitation of General Wool, who said that Newport News was to be attacked, two frigates—the *Congress* and the *Cumberland*—were anchored off that point. So far as the Navy Department was advised by the officers (both Army and Navy) at Hampton Roads, the force there was ample to take care of the *Merrimac*. There was nothing asked for that was not at once provided. The construction and projected raid of the Confederate vessel had been duly reported to Captain Marston, the senior naval officer at the Roads, by Union friends at Norfolk. As early as February 11, that officer wrote to the Department that a Russian who had worked on the *Merrimac* had informed him that she was coming out of dock, and was not a failure. His despatch closed by saying: "I trust that we shall be able to give the Rebels a warm reception." This was the tone of all letters, official and private.

General McClellan's plan to move the Army of the Potomac, in March, 1862, back to Annapolis, and thence down the Chesapeake and up the Rappahannock to Urbana, in the rear of the Confederates, was finally consented to by Mr. Lincoln, on condition that the major part of the army should go down the Potomac; and to effect this he desired that the Confederate batteries along the river should be taken. In consequence of this, and not on account of any fear of a visit from the *Merrimac*, a telegram, dated March 5, was sent to Baltimore, to go thence by boat to Hampton Roads, directing Captain Marston to send the *Monitor* to Washington. The next day it was found that she had not left New York, and a telegram of similar purport was sent there, but she had sailed before this was received. On the 6th, Captain Marston was directed to send two frigates into the Potomac, with the object of clearing it of Confederate batteries to permit the passage down of the army, as the President desired. But upon the representation of Assistant-Secretary of the Navy Fox that, as the *Merrimac* was expected daily, no part of the force at Hampton Roads should be withdrawn without the approval of the commanding officers there, Captain Marston was directed to suspend this order until the arrival of the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, who was sent to Hampton Roads by the President, to make such orders as the exigency demanded, after consultation with the commanding officers there.

Mr. Fox arrived at the Roads Sunday morning in time to witness the first iron-clad contest, but one day after the *Merrimac* had made an end of wooden navies forever. The *Monitor* had arrived the evening before, after the destruction of the *Congress* and *Cumberland*, and had found the *Minnesota* ashore and the whole fleet, so confident before, utterly helpless. Of course Captain Marston did not deliver to Lieutenant Worden the order of the Department to come to

Washington. If he had done so, Worden, according to military usage, should have disobeyed it. History does not forgive Marshal Grouchy for standing on the technical orders of the Emperor, on the 18th of June, instead of marching to the field of Waterloo, the cannon of which he could hear.

After the repulse of the *Merrimac* and the saving of the *Minnesota*, telegraphic communication was established for the first time between Washington and Hampton Roads, and the Assistant Secretary sent to Mr. Welles a concise account of the fight. But during the interval of one day between the news of the havoc made by the *Merrimac*, and that of the arrival and gallant stand of the little *Monitor*, a panic arose, beginning at Hampton Roads with the reaction from over-assurance, which spread all over the North. Admiral Dahlgren and the Quartermaster-General proposed to block up the Potomac River; and Secretary Stanton ordered a telegram sent to Commodore Vanderbilt asking him to enter into a contract to destroy the *Merrimac*. In spite of this panic General McClellan determined to use Fortress Monroe as a base, and sent General McDowell to Assistant-Secretary Fox to get his opinion in regard to the *Merrimac*'s field of operations. He received from the General the following telegram in answer:

"WASHINGTON, D. C., }
"March 13, 1862, 9:15 P. M. }

"Major-General McClellan:

"I have seen Fox. He says the *Merrimac* is not able to come into the Chesapeake, and is slower than the *Monitor*. The latter fought under very disadvantageous circumstances, is uninjured, and is capable of mastering her adversary. He seems to regard the operations of the *Merrimac* as confined to Hampton Roads above the Fort. The Secretary has telegraphed concerning Burnside and Wool. No troops ordered to Fremont from this army. IRVIN McDOWELL,
"Brigadier-General."

The Confederates justly claimed a victory on the 8th of March, and they tried hard to make their people believe that they drove the *Monitor* away on the 9th. But on that day J. P. Benjamin, their Secretary of War, telegraphed to General Huger at Norfolk to know why the Virginia withdrew "without destroying the *Minnesota*." Huger answered on the 10th: "Erickson battery prevented the Virginia from taking *Minnesota*, which got off, and has gone to Hampton Roads."

This is a confession of that which history has already settled—that Lieutenant Worden in the *Monitor* bravely prevented further destruction by the *Merrimac*. Furthermore, he acted wholly on his own responsibility, for it does not appear that he received any orders, either from Washington, or from his superiors at Hampton Roads. JOHN D. CHAMPLIN, JR.

FREE CANALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been somewhat disappointed every week for some time that my *Nation* has offered me nothing on the question of "free canals," except here and there what seems to me a tacit approval of the apparently popular notion that the constitutional amendment about to be voted for is a "good thing," and "should be carried." To me this is not so obvious as not to need discussion. I rather incline to the belief that the canals should not be free, and will vote in accordance unless I am otherwise convinced before the time for doing so.

If you can afford me space to repeat them, I find the advocate of "free canals" offering three main reasons for his views: first, they will regulate the charges of the railroads; second, they will reduce costs to the consumers; and, third, they will induce business to enter the State.

Now, as to the first, we know that at the same cost the railroad is the preferred carrier; hence if the railroad can compete with the canal as to cost, the canal will be worthless, and so, falling into disuse, will preclude any expense for maintenance. But if the canal, being free, can so far reduce the cost of transportation below the railroad as to become preferred, the railroad will be regulated "out of existence" as a freight carrier at every point where it meets the canal as a competitor, and this is far from desirable. Either case, then, seems to me to demonstrate that the railroad is a subject for other and better regulation than by the canal; namely, by a commission.

The second reason, I think, belies itself. For while in some cases in connection with this subject the taxpayer is a consumer, in most others the consumer is not a taxpayer. This is obvious when it is known that the canal carries for other States and countries than our own. But even if every consumer of the goods carried over the canal were a citizen and taxpayer of New York, I think it can be shown that the producer would receive some of the benefits of a free canal.

What is offered as a third reason, I am not prepared to deny as a simple fact; but its value as a reason strikes me as very slight. The canal as a highway is at best an artificial one, more so, to my thinking, than the railroad. I also think that trade which does not come naturally, will be found generally to benefit but comparatively few—how few in this case will be seen by any one who candidly considers the number and mode of distribution of our State's population. Should not, then, they who wish to follow a particular form of trade, do so at its natural place of settlement? This with reference to the particular class of men who seem most anxiously interested in the canal question.

Not to multiply words, I think that some reasons why the canal should not be free will be found in my consideration of those given as why it should. There are others important to be considered by the agriculturists of the State, whom they mostly concern.

These views are only presented to know whether their author or the great mass of his fellow-citizens most need enlightenment on the subject of them. If you show this, you will greatly favor at least the former, and perhaps many of the latter.—Very respectfully,

S. W. S.

NEW YORK, October 28, 1882.

Notes.

MR. W. M. GRISWOLD has added a tenth number to his Q. P. Indexes (Bangor, Me.), in the shape of a 'General Index to the *North American Review*' for vols. 92-134, covering the years 1861-1882. For the volumes 92-125 it competes with the corresponding portion of Mr. Cushing's *North American Index*, and, of course, is less full, though it adds some topics. Mr. Griswold has hit upon a most happy device for a seal or stamp or trade-mark upon the cover of this volume. In very artistic fashion it illustrates Pope's distich:

"How index learning turns no student pale,
Yet holds the eel of science by the tail."

T. Whittaker will shortly issue 'Edens of Italy,' by the Rev. Joseph Cross, D. D., embellished with more than one hundred fine woodcuts, and duly provided with an index and a map.

Macmillan & Co. will be the publishers of the first complete edition of the poet Gray's writings ever attempted, the editor being Mr. E. W. Gosse, who has lately, in the "English Men of Letters," given evidence of special qualifications for the task. It is hardly probable that any of Gray's

MSS. are preserved in this country, but Mr. Gosse desires to learn of them anywhere. His address is 29, Delamere Terrace, W., London.

While Mr. Bernard Quaritch is bringing out photolithographic facsimiles of the most important Shakspeare Quartos, executed by W. Griggs, under the superintendence of Mr. F. J. Furnivall, a "Unique Edition" of the dramatist's works is being undertaken by William Paterson, Princes Street, Edinburgh (New York: J. W. Bouton). The text of the Folio of 1623 will be followed verbally and as regards the spelling and punctuation, in this edition, and "will thus," to quote the publisher's prospectus, "appear for the first time in a handy form and in clear, legible [last century] type." The second original feature will be thirty-eight etchings by M. Monziès, after designs by M. Pille; for this kind of art has never before been employed to illustrate Shakspeare's collected works. The paper will also be of a sort never before used in book-printing. There will be four impressions, with every copy numbered; and the set of eight volumes will cost accordingly from \$120 to \$28.

Mr. Quaritch is engaged in publishing a series of photo-chromo-lithographic representations of the industrial art of all nations, chiefly selected from the collections of the South Kensington Museum, Mr. Griggs again being the executant. They appear in "portfolios" in shilling parts, containing two plates each.

The fourth volume of Stewart and Long's translation of 'Plutarch's Lives' (London: Geo. Bell & Sons) has come to hand. We have already, in the case of each of the preceding volumes, expressed our opinion of the task now completed, and deem it unnecessary to submit this one to a critical examination.

The Longfellow Engraving Co., of this city, send us a line-and-stipple engraving by Samuel Hollyer, representing the poet in his study, and as if pausing in the midst of composition. As a work of art this plate, which measures 14 x 20 inches, cannot be very highly praised either for the mechanical execution or for the draughtsmanship. Luckily, however, the face is the best part of the performance, and those who hang the print on their walls will have a fair reminder both of the man and of his workshop.

Latest of the series is 'The Bryant Birthday Book,' arranged by Janet E. Ruutz-Rees, and published by Appleton & Co. Its broad pages are rubricated, and there is an excellent steel-engraving of the poet.

And the newest calendar is 'Kate Sanborn's Sunshine Calendar' (Boston: Osgood), with the usual block for the days of the year, to each leaf of which a cheerful verse or prose anecdote or sentiment is assigned.

Two "first numbers" of new periodicals lie on our table. One, a monthly, *Capital and Labor*, is the avowed "organ of the manufacturers in the labor question, and devoted to their interests generally"; but not alone to their interests, as is shown by several articles on "Industrial Arbitration and Conciliation," "Practical Operation of Arbitration and Conciliation in France and England," "Arbitration in the United States," and "Pensions and Benefits in Industrial Establishments." The editor and publisher is Mr. Charles Lenz, at 23 Park Row. The other magazine is a quarterly, and illustrated, and is called the *Gallery of Spirit Art*. It is enough to say that it supplies the world for the first time with an authentic likeness of Confucius (to mention no other of the famous men of antiquity whose portraits are also given). We owe these precious productions to Mr. and Mrs. Anderson, working under spirit influence (Leonardo da Vinci being "the ornamental artist," when his services are required). We are told that the picture is invariably painted upward from the feet, in order to

give the spirits "all the time possible to practise on the face and expression."

It would be worth the cost of Lieut. Thomas Symons's 'Report of an Examination of the Upper Columbia River,' just issued from the Government Printing Office, if his suggestion looking to a new name for Washington Territory when it becomes a State should be carried into effect. He proposes Tacoma, which is the Indian name of Mt. Ranier, "the highest and grandest mountain" in the Territory, and of Alpine difficulty in the ascent. The report contains much interesting matter, original and incorporated, concerning a region destined to sustain a vast and prosperous population. The Upper Columbia is charted anew.

The London *Spectator* has discovered perpetual motion. Recording the trial of a launch which was driven on the Thames eight miles an hour against the tide by forty-five electrical accumulators, each of ten-inch cube, it says "the practical problem must be to reduce the size and weight of the accumulators. Once small enough to be carried, they might drive a steamer across the Atlantic, being perpetually recharged by a dynamo driven by the motion itself."

Following the example of Bibliophile Jacob, M. Arsène Houssaye reviews in *Le Livre* for October his own literary career, setting forth the order and origin of his writings, their successes and failures, and summing up the result with a melancholy forecast of speedy oblivion. On the other hand, *Le Livre* helps to perpetuate his memory by means of a fine engraving of his handsome English or German, rather than French, face. Among the book reviews we notice one of Mallock—'Vivre: la vie en vaut-elle la peine'; one of Yves Guyot, 'La Prostitution,' the too reckless author and his temperate reviewer agreeing that Government inspection of prostitutes is an evil which ought to be abolished; and one in highest praise of Larousse's new 'Grand Dictionnaire Universel du XIXe Siècle.' The news department contains the circular addressed to all the French councils-general by the committee in charge of the statue to be erected in honor of J. J. Rousseau.

—To a portrait of Col. Richard Varick (one of Arnold's military family at the time of his treason), in the November number of the *Magazine of American History*, the editor, Mr. Henry P. Johnston, adds some very interesting inedited particulars of the circumstances of the exposure and flight of Arnold. Mr. John B. Dunbar concludes his instructive papers on "The Pawnee Indians: their Habits and Customs"; and among the Minor Topics the question of the Washington pedigree is mooted in connection with representations of the carved coat of arms of the Northampton Washingtons at Sulgrave manor, and of the brass inscription of the tombstone of Lawrence Washington, Gent., 1564. The *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, No. 22, has naturally much to say of William Penn and the bi-centenary which has just been observed. Mr. F. D. Stone, the Librarian of the Historical Society, reprints Philip Ford's "Vindication" of the founder during his absence from England, and in a separate paper discusses with much learning and fairness the question whether Penn's Treaty with the Indians took place in 1682 or 1683, making a good case in favor of the latter date. Mr. Stone even concludes that the Shackamaxon elm has a fair title to the honor ascribed to it by tradition of marking the spot where the treaty was concluded. We notice, by the way, that the late popular celebration of Penn's landing at Chester and Philadelphia was in accordance with the old-style date, and that the Historical Society stood upon its dignity, and will hold its

own festival on November 8. This well illustrates the contest between scholars and the public over the Pilgrim anniversary in Massachusetts. We may as well mention here a handsome privately-printed volume, in which Mr. George L. Harrison describes his bootless errand last year, as State Commissioner, to negotiate the transfer of Penn's remains to Pennsylvania, in accordance with a resolution taken by the State Legislature. The numerous views of Stoke-Poges, of the Penn graves and the adjoining Jordans' meeting-house, at Newport Pagnel, of Isaac Penington's Grange, of Milton's Cottage at Chalfont, etc., with the author's account of his visit to the obscure burial lot, make 'The Remains of William Penn' a valuable memorial. But the student of character will perhaps find his edification, and certainly his amusement, rather in the documents showing the English Quaker way of thwarting the Commissioner. Mr. Harrison admits that he got no support from the Friends on either side as a body. One curious fact mentioned by him is that a Colonel Stuart, a lineal descendant of Penn, and his co-heirs in England, are in receipt of an annuity of \$20,000 from the British Government, in recompense for the Penn estate in Pennsylvania confiscated during the Revolution. This group naturally preferred *quieta non movere*.

—The first number of *Longman's Magazine* contains a table of contents in which there are to be found in due proportion science, fiction, literature, poetry, and what for want of a better term we may call sociology. Mr. Howells has a pleasant article on Lexington, which will probably be read with a more intelligent interest by Americans than by Englishmen. Mr. Anstey, the author of 'Vice Versa,' contributes a farcical story called "The Black Poodle"; the author of 'John Halifax,' a poem called "Departed"; Mr. Freeman, "Some Points in American Speech and Manners"; Mr. Tyndall, an article on "Atoms, Molecules, and Ether Waves"; James Payn, the opening chapters of a serial called "Thicker than Water," and Richard Owen, some comfort for anti-Darwinians in the shape of a discussion of "Our Origin as a Species." As all these writers' names may be found on the title-pages of other magazines, and the subjects they write about are not in the main new ones, it is not easy to see what special claim upon public attention *Longman's* is expected to have beyond its cheapness. This undoubtedly does constitute a claim, for cheap magazines containing varied tables of contents will probably always find readers. It is an evidence of the publishers' enterprise that they have not failed to secure in Mr. Freeman the services of an international observer. No magazine which tries to do its whole duty by its readers can afford to neglect this, and what Mr. Freeman has to say about American speech and customs will find *Longman's* some American readers. It is a very civil article, and not likely to offend any one on either side of the Atlantic. To our minds it is more readable than the other articles on America which Mr. Freeman has been publishing lately, though very little of it is new. A good deal of the current speculation about the differences between the American and English use of words is of little value, because it leads to nothing. Mr. Freeman confesses himself unable to solve the mysteries involved in our use of the words "store" and the term "dry-goods." We doubt if they can be solved. He does not notice the fact, by the way, that when ladies go to a "dry-goods store," they are always said to be "shopping" and never "storing." Will not some "Britisher," as Mr. Freeman calls himself, who has the leisure, look into this? Mr. Freeman appears to be an acute observer of linguistic differences, but having been in this country only

a few weeks, he is hardly in a position to write with authority on minute dialectic differences. He pronounces the Virginian *kyarter*, *kyar*, *kyard* (carter, car, card) to be genuine "West-Saxon," which may be true, for all we know; he does not discuss the question whether a great deal of the softening and modification of vowels in the South is not due to West-African influence. When a man once fairly abandons himself to the passion for analyzing linguistic differences, the lengths to which he will go, no matter how great his original caution, are amazing. Mr. Freeman has a little essay on the last letter of the alphabet, in which he declares that in New England it is always *zee*, in the South *zed*, while "Pennsylvania seems to halt between two opinions." *Zee*, he says, is a "schoolmaster's device" for getting rid of the strange sounding *zed*, but really the letter ought to be pronounced *ez*—a sound unheard from the lips of child or adult, so far as we know, in any part of the British empire, or even in our own free land.

—Military desertion is discussed in a somewhat rambling way by Colonel Holabird in the *United Service* for November, with the promise of a continuation. The evil is grave, and our Army has suffered from it ever since we have had an army. But the bulk of the desertions during the Rebellion (to which the writer refers with what seems exaggeration) and those now going on are essentially different in cause. The present necessity for enlisting three men where two are wanted depends quite as much upon civil as upon military failings. The average civilian will harbor and protect the deserter—or certainly will not report him—under the feeling that he is shielding a fugitive from a merciless despotism. The same man would be prompt to point out a runaway policeman or a watchman who had betrayed his trust, while the soldier who violates his oath is regarded as a fugitive from bondage. It is partly owing to this false and lax public sentiment that the mass of desertions are of those who have served the shortest time. Recruits in their civil training have not been educated to regard the military oath with solemnity, and they repudiate the contract without compunction whenever it seems to them desirable, encouraged further by the knowledge that, once free from actual military surveillance, the odds are against their apprehension. Undoubtedly there are impelling causes from within; there are many inconveniences, there is often hardship, there is sometimes injustice. But that these are not vital, follows from the rarity with which old soldiers desert. The crime is in inverse proportion to the length of service. Colonel Holabird makes in this first paper various suggestions looking to the amelioration of the condition of the enlisted men, some of which seem practicable and others appear hardly feasible. But the subject is one of importance, both in dollars and in morals, and deserves all the study that civil and military philosophers can bestow.

—The *Churchman* has been guilty of a piece of "journalism" of which a religious paper ought to be ashamed, in asserting that the *Nation* had made "the rash statement" that when Dr. Pusey was called to a Professorship at Oxford "no clergyman in the Anglican Church knew any Hebrew." The *Nation* made no such statement. What it said was, that "the best that has been said for him [as a Hebraist] is, that the chair which he took when no clergyman in the Anglican Church knew any Hebrew, did not decline in his hands." This was true at the time it was written. Inaccurate quotation to the detriment of an adversary is a peculiarly grave offence in a religious paper.

—A recent number of the *St. James's Gazette* has given some interesting figures showing the

growth of English commercial interests and the general progress of the nation during the reign of Queen Victoria. The increase in manufactures is fairly indicated by the figures connected with seven of the principal items of commercial activity. In 1840 the power of stationary engines employed was estimated at 600,000 horsepower, while in 1880 the estimate was 2,200,000. During the same forty years the production of pig-iron has increased from 1,396,000 tons to 8,326,000 per annum, and the production of coals from 36,000,000 to 147,000,000. The annual consumption of cotton has grown from 437,000,000 lbs to 1,404,000,000, and the consumption of wool from 124,000,000 to 401,000,000. The value of cotton manufactures has increased during the same period from £26,000,000 to £95,000,000; and the number of yards of linen produced has grown from 186,000,000 to 429,000,000. These figures show that manufactures have increased in about equal ratio with the output of coal—that is to say, have about quadrupled. Meanwhile, the population has arisen only thirty-three per cent. It is interesting, also, to note that, while public wealth has more than doubled, it has multiplied the number of those who are above the need of public support. In 1850 the United Kingdom had 476 paupers per 10,000 inhabitants, while in 1880 the number was only 289 per 10,000—a decline of about forty per cent. In the same period the deposits in the savings banks arose from £23,000,000 to £81,000,000, or from the ratio of 21s. to 46s. per inhabitant. The probate returns also show that the proportion of persons leaving property at the time of their death has increased from one in thirty in the year 1837 to one in sixteen in 1880. Meanwhile the national debt has been reduced £19,000,000—from £788,000,000 to £769,000,000. These figures show that while in 1837 the debt amounted to 19.5 per cent. of the national wealth, in 1880 it amounted to only 8.8 per cent. The accumulative power of the country is still further shown by the fact that during the first decade of Queen Victoria's reign the number of new houses built annually was 39,100, while in the years from 1870-80 the average amounted to 80,300. This item alone shows that since 1840 the number of new houses built, not counting houses rebuilt, has been not less than about 2,218,000, representing an estimated value of £1,371,000,000, or about double the national debt. From these interesting figures the writer draws the singular conclusion that "bricklayers in twenty years have been able to pay off the public debt, or (which is the same) to increase the public wealth to that amount."

—There were three noteworthy educational events in Cleveland, Ohio, on Thursday of last week. Adelbert College, of Western Reserve University, was formally opened. Its name is significant. For many years Western Reserve College at Hudson, Ohio, has maintained a high position among all kindred institutions west of the Alleghanies. The Trustees have now removed the foundation from its rural site to an urban home, where two fine structures have been built by Mr. Amasa Stone in memory of his son Adelbert, who was drowned many years ago while a student in New Haven. The foundation, to which a medical school is already attached, will bear the name of Western Reserve University; and it is hoped that Adelbert College will prove to be the nucleus around which other educational establishments will be clustered, under a more complete university organization to be gradually developed. The nearest neighbor of Adelbert College will be the Case School of Science, which now occupies temporary quarters in the heart of the city, but will presently be removed to the fine site, at the eastern extremity of Euclid Avenue, given by the citizens of Cleveland to

the two kindred establishments. Just opposite this site is the Wade Park, a generous gift to the city from the gentleman whose name it bears. With these auspicious beginnings the citizens of Cleveland are not amiss in hoping ere long to see other magnificent gifts for such purposes as a library, a museum, an observatory, a laboratory, or a college for women. The outlook is one of the most promising in any part of the country. The opening ceremonies at Adelbert College included an address, on the "Dawn of a University," by President Gilman of the Johns Hopkins University, speeches in bestowing and accepting the gift by Mr. Stone, President Cutler, and ex-President Hayes, and after-dinner speeches by a large number of prominent men, chiefly from Cleveland and its neighborhood.

—In the afternoon of the same day, the Trustees of the John F. Slater Fund for the Education of Freedmen tendered the appointment of General Agent to Rev. Dr. Haygood, of Oxford, Georgia, who accepted it. He will at once begin to consider the methods for organizing the work intrusted to him, so as to mature a plan for the consideration of the Trustees when they meet in Atlanta next February or March. No income will be available for distribution until that time. As a basis for Dr. Haygood's plan, the Trustees have given him several suggestions looking toward the establishment of scholarships in existing institutions, which shall give instruction in manual arts as well as in mental training. Dr. Haygood impresses all who meet him as remarkably well qualified by character and disposition to deal with the great problem which he is called upon to investigate. Finally, on Thursday evening, before an immense assembly brought together by the American Missionary Association in the Tabernacle, the subject of national aid to public education was discussed in three admirable speeches—by ex-President Hayes, who reviewed the history of the various measures which have been brought forward in Congress, and presented the arguments from a statesman's point of view; by President A. D. White, who brought many historical illustrations to bear upon the problem, and incidentally proved the need of civil-service reform by showing how Congressmen were too busy with appointments, under existing circumstances, fairly to consider such a question as national preventives of ignorance; and, finally, by Dr. Curry, of Richmond, who appeared as the agent of the Peabody Trustees engaged in promoting Southern education through the operations of that fund.

—The three numbers of *Memoirs of the Science Department of the University of Tokio* (6, 7, 8) are among the most valuable as well as most interesting of the series. The "Report on the Meteorology of Tokio," and "The Wave-Lengths of some of the Principal Fraunhofer Lines of the Solar Spectrum," are by Professor T. C. Mendenhall, whose presence was noted at the Congress of Science at Montreal this summer. Since the birth of the science of spectroscopy, the length of a light-wave of given color has ranked among the most accurately determined physical constants; yet, as every student of spectroscopy is aware, these measurements (by Angström, Van der Willigen, and Mascart) differ very considerably, as is shown in *Watts's Index of Spectra*. The lack of agreement is so great—amounting in the case of some lines to two units—as to throw all the results seriously into doubt. The Tokio University having, early in 1880, received a spectrometer of unusual power and excellence of construction, the Professor of Physics spent the months of November and December, when unusually clear weather prevails in the Mikado's capital, in his researches. Employing the last refinements of the experimenter's art, and mak-

ing due corrections, Professor Mendenhall secured results for eleven lines of the spectrum which accord very closely with Angström's, whose values have been held as the universally-recognized standard. The difference amounts in no case to a unit, whereas, in the case of other observers, the divergences amount to several units. In view of these facts, Professor Mendenhall's assertion is justified, "that any other wave-length measurements that differ widely or irregularly from these must be incorrect." It may be mentioned that Angström's splendid map of the spectrum, published in 1869, in which each characteristic ray is laid down according to its wave-length, contains about 800 lines. The laborious computation of eleven of these lines, yielding such closely agreeing results, strengthens the authority of Angström as well as adds to the reputation of the American investigator.

—Japanese weather appears to be far less fickle than common fame would lead us to suppose. By nearly all the apparatus known to the modern spy upon Nature, it has been scrutinized, interviewed, photographed, and reduced to diagrams. In addition to tables of barometer and thermometer readings, and charts of wind records, we have the force and direction of the moving air shown by loops or bags, which, despite their scientific surroundings, resemble closely the receptacle upon the back of Futen, the wind-imp or Boreas of native art. The rain-fall, humidity, the proportionate occurrence of wind and rain together, and the number of cloudy days are also depicted in the most suitable graphic designs, which the eye seizes at once. December is the finest month of the year, having the greatest number of clear days, and the rain or snow-fall being close to zero. January is nearly equal to December in fairness. The times of heavy rain are late in September, and in May or June. March is the month in which Futen is hardest at work, though, on October 4, wind reached a velocity of one hundred miles an hour. The column of mercury climbs highest in the thermometer in August, and in the barometer in February. Besides chapters on the local magnetism, and calculations of the height of Fuji-no-yama, the volume closes with an exhaustive essay on fires in Tokio, full of curious information, with a list of conflagrations since 1637. As even the capital city of the Mikado's Empire is built almost entirely of wood—until two decades ago having not one stone or brick house in it—the whole city is burned over twice in every century, and several of the most densely inhabited portions once in every seven years. These "flowers of Yedo" bloom very luxuriantly after earthquakes, which upset lamps and braziers, and attain their annual maximum in March, the month of high winds; so that a table of earthquakes and winds, and another of fires, make nearly parallel records. The abundant use of petroleum has of late years helped on the devastation. The average value of houses in Tokio is about \$30 for every thirty-six square feet built upon, and, notwithstanding this cheapness of material, the absolute loss yearly to the citizens by fire is \$3,000,000. Like the Americans, the Japanese prefer to pay a pound for prevention rather than apply an ounce of cure. Their building material is entirely from the lumber-yard. Their firemen, though brave, act without proper direction, and their apparatus is little better than a toy. Their only protection from the flames is heavy walled houses, which are nothing more than fire-proof safes set out on the street. These fire-proofs are made by plastering a foot of mud on heavy timber frames, and making the one door and very few windows of the shape and thickness of our ordinary office iron safes. On the approach of a fire, candles set in sockets are lighted to convert the air inside into carbonic-acid gas, in which no flame can live.

The cracks of the shutters are smeared on the outside with mud, and the well-to-do shopkeeper sallies off to the lumber-yard to contract for new material before the wood-sawyers get up a strike, or the merchants a "corner" in building lumber. The recent introduction of brick as a material of construction may alter this state of things, which is, and has been for centuries, steadily draining the wealth of Japan.

—In the "Chemistry of Saké-Brewing," Professor R. W. Atkinson treats of the chemical history of the national beverage of the Japanese from the transmutation of the rice-grain into *kōji* or ferment until it becomes good beer—not "wine," as most tourists call it. Like almost all the arts of Japan, that of saké-brewing is referred to Corea. Perhaps we may say that it was not so much imported as brought over by a branch of the same race that anciently inhabited the peninsula and the archipelago alike. Saké is a clear, yellowish, unfoaming liquid, usually much stronger than common beer, which is drunk hot by the Japanese. To Westerners it has a more or less smoky taste, in which the raw alcohol does not appear properly covered up. Some varieties, however, are delicious, and others are sweetish. The saké receives various names which are more or less high-sounding. The native tapster, understanding well that the bouquet will be as fragrant, and the liquid taste inwardly better, by reason of quasi-medical names, wins over many an outwardly professing teetotaler and the Timothys of Tokio who crave a little wine for the stomach's sake. Without the aid of printer's ink, or the board-fence, he beats his American rival in advertising drams "strictly for medicinal purposes," and the plain brew of rice blooms on the shop signs as "Long-life-and-never-grow-old-Spirit," "Wine of a Thousand Years," "Tortoise-longevity Cordial." These tonics are warranted "to strengthen the body against the decay of old age, increase the energies, reform all trouble within the viscera, to smooth out wrinkles, and make the old face young again. The "Eye-openers," "Essence of Long Life," "Spirit of Violets," "Honeysuckle Nectar," and "Blood Purifier" are drunk in quantities which afford about one-fifth of the total revenue of the Government. Some idea of the industry of saké-brewing may be obtained by remembering that the total acreage of rice-fields in Japan in 1878 was 3,947,268 acres, yielding 138,964,000 bushels of rice, or, on an average, thirty-five bushels to the acre. Of this amount enough grain was taken to produce 206,756,409 gallons of rice-beer, which with license fees yielded in revenue 10,735,025 yen or dollars, the total estimated revenue of the Government being 56,616,907 yen or dollars. The annual consumption of saké is six gallons per head, reckoning the population at 33,000,000 souls; or, if diluted to the ordinary strength of English beer, the rate is twelve gallons per head. In England the rate of consumption of beer is thirty-four gallons per head. The difference is to be ascribed to the enormous consumption of tea in Japan, which serves at all times, in summer and in winter, as the most common beverage. The percentage of alcohol in ordinary saké is about twelve per cent. To preserve it in hot weather it must be heated repeatedly, and one purpose of Professor Atkinson's valuable monograph is to call the attention of Japanese brewers to improved European methods and machinery for abbreviating the tedious and expensive native process. We may add our hope that the Japanese Government may not, in consequence of its action in recently doubling the taxes on saké production, be troubled by the growth of "moonshiners"; and that the happy coöperation of workers in industrial and pure science illustrated in Professor Atkinson's me-

moir may continue, with increasing advantage to the sum total of existing knowledge.

—Theological literature has lost one of the most diligent workers in its field in the person of Johann Jakob Herzog, so widely known as the editor of the 'Realencyklopädie für protestantische Theologie und Kirche,' who died in Erlangen at the end of last month. He was born in Basel in 1805, studied at the university of his native city, and subsequently in Berlin, and in 1835 became Professor of Historical Theology at the Academy of Lausanne. Here he published, in 1843, a life of Ecolampadius, in two volumes. The religious strifes which in 1847 culminated in the war of the Swiss Sonderbund induced him to resign his professorship a year before the outbreak. He was shortly after appointed Professor at the University of Halle, and in 1851 was sent by the Prussian Government on a literary journey through western Europe, with the object of collecting materials for a history of the Waldenses, which he issued in 1853, under the title 'Die romanischen Waldenser.' In 1854 he became Professor at the University of Erlangen. In the same year he began the publication of the theological cyclopaedia on which his fame rests. It was finished in 1868, in twenty-two large volumes, including a supplement. The coöperation of a vast number of scholars of eminent rank made it a work of high authority and great critical value, though the general tenor of its historical criticism was strongly affected by theological prepossessions. Herzog retired from the University in 1877, having previously begun a new edition of his cyclopaedia, with the editorial assistance of Professor Plitt. On the death of the latter, Professor A. Hauck became associate-editor. Of this edition ten volumes have appeared. Shortly before his death, Herzog completed his 'Abriss der gesamten Kirchengeschichte,' in three volumes.

—In John Arany (Arany János), whose death was announced a few days ago, Hungary has lost the last of her three favorite poets of the revolutionary era. The youngest and greatest of the three—the greatest, in fact, of all Magyar poets—Petöfi, born in the first hour of the year 1823, died as early as July 31, 1849, or at least disappeared on that day, on the battle-field of Schässburg in Transylvania, where the Hungarian army under Bem succumbed to the Russians. Tompa, born in 1819, died in 1868. Arany, the oldest, born in 1817, survived this rival fourteen years, and his unrivalled friend thirty-three years—"that genius," of whom he once sang that

"He came and vanished, as the comets soar,
But once seen by an age, and never more."

Arany died almost at the moment when the first national monument to Petöfi was unveiled at Buda Pesth. The three poets were of a kindred spirit in life and song—patriotic, freedom-loving bards of nature; sentimental admirers of their country's plain; fanciful imitators of her folklore. Petöfi excelled chiefly in lyrics, Tompa in legends and fairy-tales, Arany in comic epics. Petöfi was the most original and most striking, Tompa the most feeling, Arany the most humorous. A peculiar national flavor distinguishes the verses of all the three; it is stronger in Tompa than in Petöfi, and surpassingly charming in Arany. None of them will ever be well translated; Arany's diction is perfectly inimitable. His fame will probably conventionally rest on his 'Toldi' (an epic in twelve cantos, which won the prize of the Kisfaludy Society in 1847) and its complements, 'Toldi estéje' ('Toldi's Evening,' 1854) and 'Toldi szerelme' ('Toldi's Love,' 1880). The hero of the trilogy is a legendary Hungarian

Samson, whom popular tradition vaguely connects with King Louis the Great in the fourteenth century, or King Matthias Corvinus in the fifteenth. The most prominent of the poet's other epics are "Nagyidai cigányok" ('The Gipsies of Nagy-Ida,' 1852) and "Buda halála" ('Buda's Death,' 1864). His minor poems are very numerous. He excelled also as a literary critic and editor, and as a translator, his translations including several plays of Shakspeare. He became a member of the Hungarian Academy in 1858, and its Secretary in 1861.

—The spelling reformers may be pleased with the argument in their favor which is furnished by the continual mistakes of foreigners, even the most careful, in spelling extracts from English works. The *Bulletin Critique*, for instance, which revels in the mistakes of unlucky editors of Greek or Latin or early French texts, quotes from the *Athenæum* about Renan's 'Ecclesiastes,' "He accept nearly alle the emendations in the text proposed by prof. Graetz, and adde some of his own." And on the same page (v. lii., p. 158) it speaks of the 'Dictionary of Anonyms' of M. Halektt (Halkett). Petzholdt, in his *Neuer Anzeiger*, seldom quotes an English title without a misprint, mentioning, for example, "the *Bibliographer*, a journal of book-love," and citing from an English paper the fact that American libraries are "Boycolting English sensational fiction."

—Readers of 'Vingt ans après,' and of the 'Vicomte de Bragelonne,' may remember that the English of those entertaining works is far from being above reproach. And speaking generally, it is fair to say that only American auction catalogues equal the blunders of reputable foreign works. The last we have seen was from a place where errors might be expected, a Paris journal, which said that "La France a envoyé un des rédacteurs à Naples pour interviewer M. de Lesseps." Perhaps it was thought in this case that the act—unknown twenty years ago in France—had become so thoroughly naturalized that it deserved a French orthography. How completely it has been adopted, so that in fact the pupils have far distanced the masters, was shown lately on occasion of Mlle. Feyghine's suicide on account of her desertion by the Duc de Morny. The reporter forced himself into the Duke's hôtel, in spite of the obstruction of the "conciierge, homme poli mais glacial," and rewards the Duke for receiving him by describing him as having a "physionomie assez banale." Then he went to the Russian Church, where the second pope, who received him, is described as being in a most disorderly parlor, and having a dirty beard and, apparently, manners to correspond, for he declares that the doctor was right in calling Mlle. Feyghine mad—she must have been mad to kill herself for a De Morny: she ought to have spat in his face. Then he goes to the hôtel of Mlle. Feyghine, and thence to her teacher, M. Worms, of the Comédie-Française, who will not believe that she slew herself for love, since De Morny is "so insignificant." Finally, to leave no stone unturned, he "interviews" the mistress of another duke, who may be supposed to know the rights of such matters, and here again the poor Duke comes off badly: "She might have become an artist, with study; as a woman she would have gained by losing the Duke." It is plain that in one branch of journalism the politest nation in Europe has nothing to learn from us.

MR. WILKINSON'S WEBSTER ODE.

Webster: An Ode. O nostrum et decus et columen. 1782-1852. Chas. Scribner's Sons.

HE who fancies an ode to be a fountain of brilliant words, rising in symmetry and fall-

ing in spray, will hardly find what he expects in this sumptuous quarto volume. The ode on Webster has the somewhat rugged style that belonged to the verse of our revolutionary period, and rather suggests "Adams and Liberty" or the "Columbian Oracle" than an age of more smoothly-flowing strains. Indeed, these prolonged fifteen stanzas more resemble the heads of a discourse or the successive points of a lawyer's plea than any recognized poetic model.

This the author, indeed, frankly recognizes, for he honestly states that his object is truth, not poetry; that his work is "an attempt to revive a sentiment far gone toward being extinguished in the public mind" (p. 43); that, in short, he will be satisfied with nothing but a complete vindication of the public and private fame of Mr. Webster. "The attempt will not succeed," he admits, "and it ought not to, unless the accusations against the uprightness of Webster's character can be shown to be in the main unfounded" (p. 43). For this Mr. Wilkinson gives us forty pages of laborious rhyme; for this he adds more than eighty quarto pages of evidence, in small print, arranged with commendable fairness, and citing some of the severest criticism on Webster, as well as many statements in defence.

After all, it is a doubtful act of friendship. The maxim, "Qui s'excuse s'accuse," covers a man's friends as well as himself. No man feels prospective gratitude for the posthumous zeal of that admirer who shall celebrate his centennial by demonstrating that he did not rob a henroost or defraud his grandmother. There are charges which, whether true or false, can be best treated by ignoring them. Probably people think worse of Henry VIII., on the whole, than if Mr. Froude had not insisted on reopening the case and proving that he killed his successive wives from elevated motives. The defence has simply refreshed the world's memory of the charges. If this is true where sins are open and palpable, it is far more true of the personal foibles of a great man. The world is not so very severe, after all. If a man is an eminent lawyer, the members of "the profession" are not severe on his peccadilloes; if he has, being an eminent lawyer, spoken well of the Christian religion, the clergy are not disposed to unveil his infirmities. Mr. Wilkinson is an exception: more honest or more unkind than the rest, he calls attention to these alleged peccadilloes in order to maintain the proposition that they never existed. It is a questionable service.

On a man's centennial birthday, all charges against his private morals rest mainly on tradition. It is the most impalpable of all evidence, and therefore the most formidable. To admit that after a hundred years the belief in a man's undesirable habits is very general, so that respect for him in this direction is far gone toward being extinguished in the public mind, is to assert that the case is hopeless. The general conviction is made up, and the trouble is that, by the very nature of the case, there is no new evidence to introduce for the defence. What is called new evidence is merely negative testimony—the assertion of some one that he personally never saw the defendant do anything out of the way. But such testimony is powerless to reverse a popular verdict, when that verdict has simply registered the unwritten consensus of opinion among a man's own contemporaries.

It is easy to illustrate. It is almost the universal impression among those who have ever heard of Aaron Burr or Thomas Paine that the former was licentious and the latter intemperate; yet it may be safely asserted that there is not a person on earth who can prove either fact by his direct testimony. The grave covers

every mistress of the one, every boon companion of the other. Does that protect their memory? Unfortunately, it is fatal to it. The lapse of time, annihilating all possibility of rebutting evidence, leaves the popular impression in full force—an impression formed while the facts were accessible, and irrevocable now that they are beyond reach. The same is true, though perhaps in a less conspicuous degree, in the case of Mr. Webster. If there is a difference, it is to his disadvantage in this respect, that evidence is even now occasionally appearing against him—as in the letters of M. Bacourt, noticed in our very last number—which must count for more in the public mind than any number of eager disclaimers by admiring clergymen.

To show how frankly Mr. Wilkinson states the verdict he tries to reverse, we quote the following:

"More to abhor, abhorrent more to truth,
Lies foully fit to that soft, social heart
And genial warmth of vital temperament,
The tales they forge of reason, conscience, will—
That reason, and that conscience, and that will!—
Through sensual appetite sold into shame;
Shame that had been a tragedy of shame!
And shame that should, for me, abide not hid,
Full shown, a blot of contrast boldly black,
Against the clear, large splendor of his fame.

"Still, mother State, and though the hideous lie
Were hideous truth, still I would plead forgive—
Blame, but forgive, nor cast the shadow wide,
Making it one eclipse to darken all.

"But pity and forgiveness proudly spare!
Simple and pure, though faultless not, yet pure.
Even to the end thy grave, great son remoulded" (p. 29).

In these last seven lines are condensed the difference between the attitude of an impartial posterity and that which Mr. Wilkinson would maintain. The existing generation has grown up in the belief, transmitted from the previous generation, that Mr. Webster, with all his magnificent gifts, had certain personal weaknesses. It is already willing—perhaps more than willing—to condone these faults in consideration of his personal services; but when Mr. Wilkinson insists on a posthumous verdict of acquittal, he asks what cannot now be obtained, and his asking it only calls attention anew to what was slowly fading from the public mind.

He is but little more fortunate when he comes to consider Mr. Webster's seventh of March speech. There again the public mind, ever since the Civil War, has been more and more ready to condone the offence in view of the great previous services of Mr. Webster in maintaining the Union sentiment. That the public mind held it as an offence is proved by another admission of Mr. Wilkinson's, where he says: "There have been two verdicts—the verdict of the few in his favor, and a verdict of the many against him. It is the verdict of the many against him concerning which I raise the question whether it should not be revised and reversed" (page 81). He then, after this very damaging admission, attempts this task as frankly as the other, reprinting for the purpose a paper by himself which appeared in *Scribner's Monthly* for July, 1876.

Mr. Wilkinson has here to attempt a feat harder than his previous one, because it includes a reversal of judgment not alone on Mr. Webster, but on all his associates at the so-called "compromise period." He includes avowedly such public men as Mr. Clay (page 98), and by implication such Northern divines as Rev. Moses Stuart (page 65). If Webster was right in his seventh of March speech, they were all right; and Mr. Wilkinson does not shrink from the alternative. His whole position may be reduced to this: that the compromises so much condemned by the anti-slavery press were in reality a benefit to the nation, by staving off the Civil War till the nation was ready for it, and was prepared to end it by making an end of slavery, which could not earlier have been the case.

We hold the position to be utterly untenable. Granting all you please about Webster's antecedent services to the Union, the fact remains that he and his fellow-compromisers, so far as they had influence, weakened instead of strengthening the moral sentiment without which slavery never would have been abolished. They postponed the battle; but they demoralized the forces. President Lincoln's anti-slavery proclamation was issued and enforced in spite of their influence, not by reason of it. The proof of this is that, as a rule, the men who had sustained Webster and the Fugitive Slave Law were found in bitter opposition to that proclamation; while the President's hands were held up by the public sentiment which had revolted against Webster. The "ten years gained," over which Mr. Wilkinson and others have exulted, would have been ten years lost but for the growth of the anti-slavery sentiment in spite of the great compromisers. Had their teachings had the weight they desired, there would have been no Proclamation of Emancipation at all. Undoubtedly the earlier labors of Mr. Webster in behalf of the sentiment of union in the nation were a great source of strength to it in carrying through the war. This is a fact which his sternest opponents have lived to recognize. But when any one goes beyond this, and tries to show that the seventh of March speech was a source of anything but aid and comfort to the Slave Power, he contradicts the common sense of the community. The Webster who helped us in the hour of conflict was not the Webster of the compromises, but of the reply to Hayne. Those who looked for later inspiration had to look quite another way. What did the "Webster Regiment" itself sing, as it marched through Boston to the front? The seventh of March speech set to music? Not at all; it sang the "John Brown Song."

OLD TROY AND NEW ILIUM.

Troia und Neu-Ilium. Von Dr. E. Brentano.
Heilbronn: Gebr. Henninger. 1882.

DR. BRENTANO, the same scholar, if we mistake not, who gave to the world a few years since some flighty speculations about the tradition of the comedies of Aristophanes, has published two lectures on the interminable question of Hissarlik, under the title of 'Troia und Neu-Ilium.' He has been for several years a determined opponent of the Schliemann theory, and this pamphlet is intended to present in a convenient form the literary and historical evidence that has come down to us about the Homeric and the Greek city. Bunarbashi Dr. Brentano considers out of the question, the so-called village of the Ilions in the valley of the Dumbrek being the only site that finds favor in his eyes. Nor is his confidence shaken by the recent excavations, which have only served to show the worthlessness of former conclusions, once eagerly accepted and hotly advocated. The diminutive size of Schliemann's first Ilios puzzled many persons of a sceptical turn, but it will be remembered how gallantly Mr. Gladstone came to the rescue by asserting that Homer never called Troy "broad-streeted"—a most convincing and ingenious observation, which, unfortunately, candor compelled him to withdraw almost as soon as made. But even though this difficulty be overcome and a more capacious city be unearthed, Dr. Brentano contends that spade and mattock are naught without historical evidence, and his lectures give us a clear and interesting summary of the documents. He has made use of Mr. Jebb's article in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, and is naturally delighted to have such good company in his admiration of Demetrius of Skepsis, about whom so much of the controversy revolves.

The first lecture treats of the Homeric, the second of the Greek Ilium. The site of the Homeric Ilium was familiar to the poet in all its topographical details. The city itself had vanished in the time of Homer; the walls and palaces existed only in his imagination, but the poet of the "Iliad" knew every foot of the ground, and Virchow's testimony is cited to show that Homer's description of the surroundings of Troy cannot have been mere theatrical scenery. Dr. Brentano thinks that such a view does not postulate the historical character of the Trojan war, but it is certainly worth noticing that since Schliemann's explorations the solar hypothesis has been growing fainter and fainter. That Troy was utterly destroyed in fulfilment of the prophecy of Hector—destroyed in sheer literalness, not one stone left on another, razed, ploughed under, and done away with—was the general belief of antiquity. So the tragic poets, so that careful literary gentleman, the orator Lycurgus, so Plato, so Isocrates. According to Demetrius of Skepsis, an antiquarian who flourished in the second half of the second century B. C., there was but one author who maintained the identity of this Homeric Ilium and the Greek Ilium, and this author was Hellanicus, an easy-going and obliging chronicler, who is said to have advocated the identity from a desire to curry favor with the inhabitants of the Greek Ilium, who were exceedingly proud of the identification and made abundant capital of it. Of course Schliemann and his following have done all they could to blast the reputation of Demetrius. Skepsis was in the neighborhood of Ilium, and Demetrius's criticism is attributed to mere local envy. Dr. Brentano, who considers Demetrius a great authority on his side, has much to say about his competency and honesty, and goes off into a long discourse on the Scamander and the Simois, which he identifies respectively with Menderes and Dumbrek. Both parties to the controversy cite Dion Chrysostomos. Dion's eleventh "oration" is nothing but an elaborate sophistic reversal of the tale of Troy—an anticipation of such mock reconstructions of history as Archbishop Whately's 'Historic Doubts'—and the persiflage of the claims of the Ilions does not enter into the argument at all. Dr. Brentano has no more right to cite him than Schliemann has; no more right to cite him than he has to spell his name *Chrysostomos*, as he does persistently.

In the second lecture the fortunes and pretensions of the Greek Ilium are followed, and the importance of the place traced to the Palladium, which the priestess of Athena Ilias identified with the Trojan Palladium. The respect paid to the Greek city, the sacrifices offered by Xerxes, by the Spartan general Mindarus, by Alexander the Great, may be accounted for in this way without assuming the identification. New Ilium was on Trojan territory, and had been its religious centre even though it was not the sacred city of Troy itself. In summing up his argument, Dr. Brentano refuses to believe—and small blame to him—in the seven cities heaped one on the other in a space 100 metres broad and 76 metres deep; nor will he admit that non-Hellenic means necessarily pre-Hellenic. The primitive pottery of the barbarians might easily have been contemporaneous with the finer ceramics of the Greek inhabitants. Any German village would present the same conditions, and it might be added that an American town would show a still wilder confusion of styles. A landslide that should bury a resort of summer boarders in America would preserve for the future Schliemann's jumble of styles which would make the problems of Hissarlik contemptibly easy in comparison.

Like all other antagonists of Schliemann, Dr. Brentano feels that he is in danger of incurring grave censure, as if dissent from Schliemann's views were an insult to the character of a man

whose energy and liberality have been crowned with brilliant success and rewarded with abundant honor. That is a German way of looking at things. We may acknowledge that we owe all that has been revealed by Schliemann's efforts to his vision of the buried world of Troy, and that all controversy must redound in one form or another to his praise. But the great explorer himself will hardly be satisfied with anything short of absolute coincidence. We must be prepared to follow him in all his speculations. It is not enough that we believe in the mask of Agamemnon, we must put our faith in the sty of Eumeus.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—I.

MR. GEO. CARY EGGLESTON prefaces his book, 'Wreck of the Red Bird' (Putnams), with a dedication. The opportunity is one of which an indiscreet person might avail himself to become painfully effusive. Mr. Eggleston escapes this peril, and gives expression to his grief in a manner which cannot fail to secure for him the respect and sympathy of his readers. He has to tell of three lads, on the coast of South Carolina, who embark, for a brief excursion to a neighboring island, in a small boat. Although they arrive safely at their destination, and land their provisions, they shortly after meet with misfortune in the partial wreck of their craft. Deprived of means to return to the mainland, they set bravely to work to rebuild their little vessel; and while thus engaged they meet with a variety of adventures. The story is an interesting one, and has a peculiar attractiveness from the *mise-en-scène* among the Sea Islands.

'Off to the Wilds' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.) is an account of the doings of an Englishman and his two sons in the southern portions of Africa. Certain domestic complications, which will be found fully explained in the text, supply the *raison d'être* of the expedition. Mr. Rogers, for such is the name of the father, his two sons, a Zulu and his two boys, compose the expeditionary force. After a complete and careful outfit they leave civilization behind them, and enter the wilds of Africa. All the adventures and dangers of which the country is capable are encountered, and successfully overcome, and our explorers return to their homes vastly improved in health and spirits. Mr. Manville Fenn is a writer of experience, and has thoroughly saturated himself with the narratives of explorers of the "dark Continent"; consequently he tells his story fluently and with a verisimilitude which will impose pleasantly upon the most sceptical. It is, indeed, an excellent piece of work.

'Red Cloud, the Solitary Sioux,' by Lieut.-Col. Butler (Roberts Bros.), is an impossible Indian story, reminding one of a mixture of the 'Swiss Family Robinson' and a mild Jules Verne. An English lad, reared in Ireland until he is seventeen, immediately passes into the Saskatchewan country and falls in with an educated savage, who conducts him through a series of astonishing adventures, and bestows upon him a fortune in native gold—all within a year. The scenery follows nature, but the men and their situations are factitious as well as fictitious. But the plot is exciting, and the various thrilling escapes are ingenious to the last degree. Still, no American boy—certainly none above the age of twelve and the grade of a dime-novel reader—is likely to lose his head over such a romance, and wildly dash into the Northwest on such an expedition; and we suppose the English lads for whom it is specially written will also judiciously stay at home. In view of the well-known chief of that name, the title 'Red Cloud' is misleading; and no self-respecting Dakota

will accept the nick-name "Sioux," as the hero persistently calls himself.

Mr. William O. Stoddard's 'The Talking Leaves' (Harpers), on the other hand, is a capital Indian story of Arizona, any incident of which might be true; and the whole bears evidence of local color studied on the spot. The author and the artist combine to furnish the Apaches with rather more clothing than the customs of the country warrant, and with a higher style of tepee. But a blemish in favor of decency is pardonable, and it is balanced by the fidelity to nature of the horses, which usually so sorely tempt the artist to transform them into thoroughbreds or monstrosities. There are fights and escapes enough to satisfy the most exacting youngster, but the combination is not impossible. There is a sprinkling of sarcastic comment which the brighter boys will appreciate and which the duller ones will not be the worse for. The action is rapid and natural, and the story thrilling, yet not likely to upset the imagination. The book is a good one for boys to read, and they can't help liking it.

The same author's 'Saltillo Boys' (Scribner) is a pleasant story, the scene of which is laid in a town in central New York thirty years ago. The boys described are from thirteen to sixteen years old, and belong to a school in which the master endeavors to impress the value of self-government upon his pupils. This lesson is fairly well brought out in the various incidents given of life in and out of school. The only instance in which it seems to us the author fails to leave a right impression is in his description of a cock-fight, where the interest in the victory of the boy's bird is rather stronger than the rebuke for "so cruel and brutal an amusement." Mr. Stoddard, in our opinion, would have been still more successful in his endeavor to teach his young readers true manliness had he adopted a different style in the narrative portions of his story. We do not find fault with his endeavor to represent the boys' talk to the eye by clipping words and running them together, though such realism is not to our taste and after a time becomes wearisome. But his narrative frequently reads like his boys' talk, and here, we think, he makes a mistake in art. There should run through a book which aims to enforce a moral the quiet and dignified tone and style which a master would have in school. This the author fails to give, though there are passages which show that his failure was not from lack of power, but from a mistaken desire to be always bright and interesting. With these reservations we can heartily recommend 'Saltillo Boys' as a thoroughly good book.

Of Mr. Towle's 'Drake, the Sea-King of Devon' (Lee & Shepard) it would be enough to say that it is one of the best, certainly one of the most interesting, of the excellent series ('Heroes of History') to which it belongs. As, however, it is announced that this work completes the series, we may say a word upon one or two features in which we could wish the author had followed a different plan. In the first place, the title is a misnomer: many of the subjects are true heroes—all of them may be so regarded from some point of view—but all are travellers and discoverers. A title should have been chosen which really described them in this distinctive character. In the next place, the illustrations are not of the kind that we like; they are, without exception, "made up," and some of them made up very badly: what in the world are the three truculent individuals standing for their portraits in the foreground of the picture opposite page 44 supposed to be doing? We ought at least to have a portrait of the hero of each volume. In the next place, the form in which the story is cast—neither a history nor a

romance—is one in which it is difficult to maintain the balance between fiction and truth. The adventures here narrated are no doubt true; the conversations are probably fictitious; where is the line drawn between them? To illustrate what we mean: the adventures of Drake on the Spanish main form, we believe, the foundation in facts of the fascinating adventures of Sir Amyas Leigh in fiction. But the story of Sir Amyas Leigh does not profess to be anything but fiction, and we read it as comfortably as we should a novel of the present day. But in the book before us we are all the time tormented by a suspicion that this or that picturesque incident is the creation of the author. No doubt the boy reads and enjoys the whole without any such disquietude, but we do not know that this helps the matter. He is not merely enjoying himself—he is learning what may after all turn out to be false. We would not be understood as disparaging Mr. Towle's books, but rather as criticising the class of books of which they are among the best examples. He has avoided the faults indicated as much as could be expected, and has produced a set of books which ought to be in every library for the young.

There is hardly one of the familiar sports and amusements of boys twelve years and upward of age that is not described and explained in Mr. D. C. Beard's 'What to Do, and How to Do It: The American Boy's Handy-book' (Scribner). These and many which are unfamiliar are noticed under the headings of the season to which they are most appropriate. There is a long chapter on kites which might instruct even the Chinese; and one on "Knots, Bends, and Hitches," which, with that on the "Rigging and Sailing of Small Boats," forms the best two in the book. That on "How to Camp Without a Tent" has a good many useful hints, but, as some of the other chapters do, assumes an almost preternatural skill on the part of the boys in the use of tools, and a stock of industry such as few of them have. The chapters on fishing are not good: they describe various novel contrivances, but say nothing of the habits of fish or the best methods of catching them. The chapter on "Trapping" had better have been omitted: boys can find enough ways of destroying small and game-birds without learning how to make and use the numerous snares and springs Mr. Beard writes of. There is an excellent chapter on taxidermy for boys, and one on sleighs and snow-shoes; and the book concludes with a list of indoor amusements for winter. On the whole, it is a good book for boys—the best we have yet seen here of its kind. The printing and illustrations are capital.

Mr. Horace Scudder, in his loyalty to the "Bodley Family," follows them down even to 'The Bodley Grandchildren, and their Journey in Holland' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). This is a clever account of the relation of Holland to old New York, and to the Dutch episode of the wanderings of the Pilgrim Fathers—interwoven with a description of Holland at the present day. It is interesting in the first aspect, and graphic and accurate in the last—a good picture of modern Dutch life as it appears to New York children. It would not have been an ungraceful act for the publishers to credit Waring's 'A Farmer's Vacation' with some twenty of the better illustrations of the book, which are here inserted as belonging to the text.

Olive Thorne Miller has, in several acceptable books for the young, already betrayed an unusual gift for interesting this class of readers. Equal skill in method and in style marks her 'Little People of Asia' (Dutton & Co.), which takes account of the "salted baby" of Turkey, the Tartar "battered baby," the Siamese "dyed baby," the Japanese "happiest of all" baby,

etc. It has cost much research, and called for judgment and accuracy in compilation. While bestowing attention principally on the little folk, of course it incidentally conveys much information concerning their parents. Children of eight or nine and upward will be charmed by it. The illustrations are numerous.

Life of Edwin H. Chapin, D.D. By Sumner Ellis, D.D. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 1882. Pp. 332.

NEITHER the place nor date of Dr. Chapin's birth is given by his biographer, apparently from inability to fix on either, though the year 1816 is inferrible from a statement on page 39. The father, a most unstable character, was a strolling portrait painter, whose migratory habit made a matrimonial alliance with a member of the famous Bedouin family, the Hubbells, very natural and appropriate. Dr. Ellis insists that their issue owed much to his Hubbell lineage; but except the lot of a wanderer for the first half of his life, the heredity on this side is rather obscure. The only instructor who had any influence on his character and career, Mr. James Ballard, head of the academy at Bennington, was a relative on the mother's side, and is said to have been "an ardent lover of eloquence; and the more impassioned it was, the better it pleased him. It was no gentle breeze, but a whirlwind, of oratory that he admired and sought in his models and his pupils." Young Chapin, just arrived from the spouting Siddonian Club in Boston, and almost stage-struck, was at once taken in hand as a promising apprentice in the art of declamation.

This was his chief equipment when, in 1836, he went to Troy and began the study of law. It is admitted that he had no legal aptitude whatever, lacking the necessary application. Yet the discipline, such as it was (for it lasted but a few months, and was not even continuous), was all he had before he began preaching in Universalist pulpits in the space of less than two years after leaving the academy. He was a convert to Universalism, but he cared so little for it as a dogma that throughout his clerical service he abstained from enforcing it in his sermons. It is true, as he frankly admitted to his first congregation, that he did not "see it so clearly revealed in the Bible" as to "feel justified in pronouncing it a plain, unequivocal doctrine of the Gospel." But his further reason for having "dwelt but little upon the points of doctrine," viz., that, more than for sects and parties, he preferred to labor "for spiritual advancement, for moral and intellectual progress," would have permitted him to occupy a Calvinist pulpit.

Such a preference proved no obstacle to his preaching in a slave State like Virginia, at its capital, from which he had accepted his first call. He went to Richmond in May, 1838, and remained without mental or bodily discomfort till 1840, when a congregation in Charlestown, Mass., persuaded him to succeed the father of Starr King. Dr. Ellis gives a chapter to Chapin the Reformer. It is not long, and it might have been as brief as the chapter on snakes in Iceland. There were no reformers south of Mason and Dixon's line in 1838. Dr. Chapin, we may well believe, was always humane and sympathetic, but it never cost him the least effort to be silent on the subject of slavery while on slave soil. Consider, for example, the capacity of an address in a slave city (it was to the Odd-Fellows of Baltimore, in 1845), on "The Practical Recognition of Human Brotherhood the Great Want of Society," and then reflect that no notice could possibly be taken then and there of the greatest of all violations of human brotherhood staring

the orator in the face and claiming reverence as a sacred institution. The mere selection of such a topic was a travesty on reform. Dr. Chapin's subsequent participation, in his fashion, in the anti slavery, the temperance, and other causes proves nothing. They were so many fields for his elocution, but there is not the slightest evidence that he would ever have taken the initiative in an unpopular movement. On the other hand, it is notorious that the leading members of his congregation in New York were hostile to the Abolitionists and even to the War for the Union. He did not budge when pew-doors were slammed by departing occupants, but it was not exactly a reformer who retorted: "*I shall not go out of my way to seek these topics*, but when they are fairly before me I shall not turn aside to avoid them, though your pew-doors should clap to like platoons of musketry." What characterizes the reformer is, that he lugs in his topics.

The candor of Dr. Ellis checks at every point his overestimate of Dr. Chapin. He styles him, in the preface, "this truly great man and almost peerless orator," and then supplies the reader with data for forming a quite different opinion of him. That his greatness was inseparable from his oratory, we presume his admirers would be the first to admit. Now, of this Dr. Ellis gives not more than three or four samples; but here is one, spoken at the close of the Crimean War, of which he says: "With many strokes of thought and rhetoric equally pertinent and overpowering, he [Dr. Chapin] moved through his half-hour of eloquence":

"I love to hear the rumbling of the steam-power press better than the rattle and roar of artillery. It is silently attacking and vanquishing the Malakoffs of vice and the Redans of evil, and its approaches cannot be resisted. I like the click of the type in the composing-stick better than the click of the musket in the hand of the soldier. It bears a leaden messenger of deadlier power, of sublimer force, and a surer aim, which will hit its mark, though it is a thousand years ahead."

This passage is really only a metaphor, with hardly a trace of "thought" in it, and, while "pertinent," is very far from being "overpowering." Dr. Ellis thinks "it was a significant witness of Dr. Chapin's triumphant eloquence, that those who were wont to hear him generally regarded his last effort as his greatest. Their latest tumult of emotion made it quite impossible for them to exercise a rational remembrance." Judgments formed under such circumstances were apt to be very much tempered when an opportunity for reflection presented itself. Dr. Ellis intimates that Dr. Chapin's sermons were dull reading. They do not, whether in manuscript or in print, "disclose to the reader many of the looked-for passages by which he wrought overwhelming effects in delivery." And again:

"So great and perfect was his command of his muscles and vocal powers and passions that, if he saw fit, he could make a thrilling climax of a platitude, electrify and awe his hearers with a commonplace, make a molehill play the part of a mountain, with its crags and caverns and clouds; and the reader of one of his printed sermons would hardly be able to tell where, in the preaching of it, if it were preached in his mid-years, he swept his audience into breathless moods of wonder and rapture. In fact, he did it very much at his pleasure."

Naturally, his pleasure was to "do it" when his ideas were scantiest:

"The subtle mind of Starr King, his youthful parishioner, detected at a glance, as his eloquent young pastor entered the pulpit, the order of oratory which was about to be displayed. If Chapin came with poor outfit for the service, he dashed into the pulpit with a sort of frenzy (as King noticed), rushed from seat to desk, and desk to seat, worked his body into a fever and

sweat, gave his arms to a wildness of gesture, and pressed his voice to an uproar."

When to the foregoing we add Dr. Ellis's very plain account of Chapin's mode of composing (he very seldom finished writing out his sermons), of patching together old and new, of ringing the changes on his "gems," we have a very fair measure of the preacher's mental powers. A little light still remains to be thrown upon them. It is well known that Dr. Chapin was a bibliophile, who amassed in the course of forty years a library of 10,000 volumes, and was an incessant reader of books. Yet, says Dr. Ellis, "he rarely made a reference, and more rarely a quotation, which indicated the range of his reading." And the more he read the less he yielded back. "In his earlier years he was much more given to reflecting his wealth of literary treasures than later in life. His first and last book reveal a marked contrast in this respect—not that the former is at all pedantic, but that the latter is strangely exempt from all echoes and glimpses of the great authors." In short, making every allowance for Dr. Chapin's good taste in refraining from incoherent embellishments which betray the lack of originality and of independent thinking, we must conclude that he was one of the *gens qui ont besoin de beaucoup lire et peu m'diter*.

Dr. Chapin's success as a lecturer was as great as that as a preacher, and perhaps more remunerative. One lecture, on "Orders of Nobility," is estimated, from the recorded repetitions of it, to have netted him twenty thousand dollars. Among the exceptional rewards of literary labor this might rank very near the front. Chapin's popularity had much to do with swelling the class of high-priced declaimers who filled our lyceums before the war and brought the lecture system into contempt and decay. We fear that Dr. Ellis's eulogistic biography, despite its candor, will tend to encourage untrained and empty oratory.

The March to the Sea. Franklin and Nashville. By Jacob D. Cox, LL.D., Late Major-General Commanding Twenty-third Army Corps. [Campaigns of the Civil War.—X.] Charles Scribner's Sons.

In this volume, the sequel to 'Atlanta,' General Cox has given us a concise but clear narrative of Thomas's defence of Tennessee against Hood in the fall of 1864, and of Sherman's "March to the Sea" and his subsequent campaign in the Carolinas down to the close of the war. His book is, indeed, a comprehensive sketch of those military operations in Sherman's department, during the last six months of the war, which brought speedy and complete disaster to the Confederate cause. The story is simply told: the situation after the fall of Atlanta is clearly set forth; the difficulties and perplexities which beset Sherman when he found Hood moving against his communications are, perhaps, too much elaborated; the well-devised plans of the Federal general for marching to the Georgia coast with the greater part of his army, while he provided for Thomas, in his rear, a force sufficient to overwhelm Hood, are clearly described. The operations of Schofield and Thomas in Tennessee, where the main interest of the campaign centred (for Sherman met with no serious opposition), are carefully and fully narrated. The picture of Thomas—his modesty in accepting command, his slowness in concentrating his forces, his hesitation in attacking Hood, even with greatly superior numbers, his stubborn tenacity when attacked, and his overpowering assault, at last, at Nashville, when driven to it by his superiors—is well drawn.

The absorbing interest of this campaign grows out of the influence it exercised on the fate of

the Confederacy. General Cox speaks of the difficulties which surrounded Sherman after the fall of Atlanta, and gives him credit for boldness in attempting the march to Savannah. Still, if Sherman's position at the head of 60,000 victorious troops, with 50,000 others gathering under Thomas to protect his rear, had difficulties, how small must they have been compared with those of Hood, who, with 40,000 defeated men and a country too exhausted to reinforce him, had to decide how to make headway against the large armies that threatened soon to close round him! The Confederate Government was at this time sorely straitened. It held its capital, against a great host, only by the veteran courage of a dwindling army and the consummate skill of its commander. From every quarter came the cry for reinforcements, while there were none to give. The utmost efforts of the Confederacy did not suffice to maintain the numbers already in the field. It seemed to the Richmond authorities that only by audacity, energy, and skill could the immense preponderance of force against them be neutralized. It was because Johnston's cautious policy seemed to them to promise nothing but certain, if slow, strangulation, that he had been removed and Hood substituted. The latter's efforts to save Atlanta had been failures, but active and aggressive operations still appeared, both to the Confederate general and to his superiors, the only course that promised any relief. The risks to be incurred were, of course, immense, but similar audacity had more than once in Virginia rolled back the tide of war from the James and the Rappahannock, to the Potomac. Hence Hood's plan to transfer his army to Sherman's rear, attack his long line of communications, break up his depots, regain possession of the State of Tennessee, and thus force Sherman to leave Georgia, was approved.

While Hood's plan must rest for its justification largely on the straits to which he was reduced, General Cox's narrative shows that it was feasible, and that had it been executed with an energy and skill equal to the boldness of its conception, it would, in all probability, have accomplished the object intended. Hood started on his campaign about the 1st of October, and after doing much damage in Sherman's rear, and drawing the main body of the Federal army as far as Rome and Kingston after him, reached the Tennessee River and secured a crossing by November 1. Now it was that Hood lost his chance of success by delay. Early in November Schofield's corps was sent back, by Sherman, to aid Thomas, who with that and the Fourth corps had, even before the troops ordered to him from Missouri arrived, an army of over 54,000 men with which to oppose Hood. Feeling now that Thomas would be strong enough to take care of Hood, Sherman, in those same early days of November, turned back from following him, and, concentrating his forces at Atlanta, set out about the middle of the month, with 62,000 men, on his march toward Savannah. Those first two weeks in November were priceless to Hood. Thomas's troops were not ready to oppose him early in November. Sherman was moving back toward Atlanta, but was not yet fully committed to his seaward march. Had Hood crossed the Tennessee and pushed boldly northward, by forced marches, he would have passed over more than half the distance to Nashville without opposition, and by falling upon such of Thomas's gathering forces as were in his path, might have gained important advantages, and reached Nashville before the enemy could have concentrated sufficiently to prevent it. This sudden and formidable irruption into the heart of Tennessee would have produced the recall of Sherman, to whose plan Grant and Lincoln had given

only a hesitating approval. Hood charges his delay to the difficulty of obtaining supplies, and there can be no doubt that his trials on that score were severe enough. But this was a case when the utmost celerity was indispensable. Such difficulties as Hood met with might properly have prevented his undertaking the campaign at all. Once embarked on it, however, in a friendly country, with Forrest's large body of cavalry under his control to prevent interference with his foragers, the question of supplies should not have cost him three days, much less three weeks.

Hood finally moved north from Florence on November 20. Schofield fell back to Columbia, which position he was compelled to abandon by Hood, who crossed the river on his flanks and struck at Spring Hill in his rear. Here again Hood's movement, which had been boldly and skillfully managed, lost vigor at the critical moment, and the Federal army was permitted to retreat during the night, without material loss, in sight of the Confederate campfires. The errors of that day were atoned for in blood, at Franklin, on the next. Having permitted the Federals to gather a good force in his front, and, after dislodging this force from Columbia, having permitted it to reach Franklin in safety, Hood unwisely attacked Schofield at the latter place in a strong position, only to meet with fearful losses. Schofield retreated during the night so that he might unite with the other portions of Thomas's forces in front of Nashville, but he had struck Hood a terrible blow before doing it, and bore off all the real advantages of the combat.

The part of Hood's campaign most open to criticism now follows. After the heavy losses at Franklin, Hood could not muster 30,000 men present for duty, exclusive of Forrest's cavalry, and yet he advanced toward Nashville, where Thomas's forces were now swelled to nearly 70,000 men. He remained in the latter's front until attacked by the Federal commander on December 15, when he was defeated and driven southward. Hood's advance after Franklin is indefensible. General Cox does not hesitate to criticize Thomas's slowness in attacking Hood, and to admit that, notwithstanding his immense superiority of force, he had to be finally goaded to it by the Federal Administration. It is impossible to deny that the means under Thomas's control after the middle of November were sufficient, if used with energy and skill, to have stopped Hood far short of the heart of Tennessee.

Sherman's march to Savannah, and thence through the Carolinas, was that of a triumphant army to whose progress the Confederates could oppose but a few thousand men of fragmentary commands. The resistance was too feeble to constitute any serious obstacle to Sherman. Of the excesses of his army on this march General Cox speaks in a lenient tone, or in one of (at most) mild disapproval.

In the statement of comparative numbers, General Cox uniformly uses the "Present for duty" on the returns as giving the Federal strength, but declines to take the same columns on the Confederate returns for the same purpose. He uses the Confederate "Present" instead (which included all of the sick, extra-duty men, and those in arrest), under an erroneous impression that the extra-duty men were such as would go into ranks in a fight. As the Confederate conscription placed everybody in military service, all teamsters, etc., had to be detailed, and such constituted in large part the "extra-duty" men on the returns. This error is the more to be regretted because of the fairness of tone and general accuracy of statement which characterize this valuable contribution to the history of the war.

The Growth of English Industry and Commerce.

By W. Cunningham, M.A., late Deputy to the Knightsbridge Professor in the University of Cambridge. Cambridge: At the University Press. 1882.

MR. CUNNINGHAM has undertaken to produce one of the most important desiderata of political economy—a succinct, comprehensive, and judicious summary of the development of English commerce and industry. He has performed the task, in many respects, with great success. In his first chapters he treats of a great many disputed points, about which authorities would not agree that his statements are correct; but he has acted in such matters with good judgment, and he deserves the confidence of the class of readers for which he writes. It is hardly to be expected that his book will have any great effect on those people who are fitted out with a few stupid commonplaces about the industrial history of England. Of course, the current commonplaces are the widest possible generalizations. Mr. Cunningham does not deal in generalizations of that character; he offers the material by which a careful reader may correct errors. Experience proves, however, that people are very slow to avail themselves of such means of correcting old false notions.

Mr. Cunningham is disappointing when it comes to the critical observation of the forces at work in the history which he presents. There is great need that the history of the first industrial nation in the world should be critically analyzed by a strong and highly-trained scholar, who could give to the forces in it their due proportion, and could firmly repress the pet notions of our time. For instance, the history of the fourteenth century and the effects of the reduction of population by the Black Death, all of which are well described by our author, are rich in instruction for the student of social arrangements in regard to labor and land. How can it be affirmed, as Mr. Cunningham affirms (pp. 391, 392), that capital always has the advantage over labor, when the case referred to distinctly proves that no general assertion of that kind will hold? The condition of things in the United States at the present time is another clear instance to prove that the relations of labor and capital depend on the relations of supply and demand, and that sometimes one and sometimes the other has the advantage.

Mr. Cunningham very judiciously sets aside the question whether laborers are better off now than formerly, but he does not do this until he has given some attention to that question. He cannot find a standard of comparison, since indeed there is none. There is only one form in which the question could be put to give it any sense, and that is this: If any person now living, who has no capital, could understand the position and mode of life of a man similarly situated, who lived in the fourteenth century, would he envy the latter? It cannot be believed that he would do so. Yet there are readers of Cunningham and Thorold Rogers who have noted the comparative changes in prices and rates of wages, and have spoken as if the contrary were true. In all such speculations it is assumed that the "laborer" is a person having a fixed definition, and that "the laboring class" has been a closed caste which has been perpetuated without changing its social boundaries. There could be no more false assumption. Nearly all the middle capitalist class of England, and nearly all the population of the United States, have been produced out of those who were destitute of land and capital five centuries ago. Therefore, in measuring the advance of laborers in the last five hundred years, the whole gain of the bourgeoisie must be credited to their improvement. Mr. Cunningham thinks that society has gained during the

period in review, but he doubts if the individual man has gained. He thinks that, under competition, the individual is crushed down. This inference seems to us incorrect, because it is not in line with the facts. The fact which Mr. Cunningham's book plainly shows is this: With advancing population there has been advancing civilization—i. e., increasing power to support population. The men of each generation have sought to win as much of this, each for himself, as possible. That is what free competition and civil liberty mean. Those who have won in this struggle have risen out of the laboring into the capitalist class, and the English nation and civilization have advanced by and through them. Those who have not succeeded and their children are the "laborers" of to-day. When the truth of the matter is thus apprehended there is no "social question" any more for anybody to make speeches and essays about, but only another repetition of the threadbare old precept to the individual man—if you are not satisfied with your position in life, go to work, save your product, and do as well for yourself as you can.

There is another lesson of this history which we should have been glad to see more clearly brought out; indeed, the author sometimes speaks as if he had not thoroughly perceived it himself. When the introduction of sheep-farming lowered the profits of tillage, the class of yeomen farmers began to disappear. There were those who lamented this change, and who thought that the state should try to check it (p. 269). No such step was taken, and in time the trouble cured itself. One such instance is of the utmost value as an illustration and warning of the folly of statesmen who are ready to interfere with the course of things which seems to be bringing what they do not like. It is also a warning to us that we are constantly liable to error if we stand ready with our little tape-measures to estimate the good or ill of the industrial and social changes which come in the course of time. The wise man is he who follows and adjusts himself to the changes which come about. The industrial history of any great nation shows us that the changes are never un-mixed gains. New and incidental evils spring out of the improvements on which we pride ourselves most. The true view is that the life of the society goes on, bringing constant changes and developments. We have to "keep up," to learn the new and to discard the old. Every new chance brings a new responsibility. If it offers a greater gain, it offers a proportionately greater chance of loss, and the penalty of mistake is to perish while the society pushes on.

Hence we cannot regard it as profitable or to the point to say, as our author does: "The amount of social misery need not lead us to underestimate the greatness of the economic improvement, though it may lead us to see that the question how far economic improvements are matters for congratulation is one that admits of more difference of opinion than may at first sight appear" (p. 259). We are familiar with this kind of writing, but it belongs in another kind of literature than that to which Mr. Cunningham's book belongs. How can there be any question whether we should congratulate ourselves on economic improvement? We are working for it all the time. Can we possibly regret it or be indifferent to it? What we need to understand about economic improvement is that it is only a chance. It has no moral value in itself: its moral value depends on the use men make of it; but to win more chances for men to live happier lives, if they are wise enough to use the chances, is certainly a subject of congratulation.

Zoological Sketches. By Felix L. Oswald. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1883 (sic).

We have here ten chapters of zoological anecdotes related in a lively and entertaining fashion, and illustrated by thirty-six woodcuts after Hermann Faber. These last are artistic enough and not glaringly inaccurate, but are far from being comparable to the illustrations of Hamerton's 'Chapters about Animals,' for instance. The blurry technique which, by leaving much to the imagination, may prove effective for the representation of love-lorn damsels or distant landscape, is wholly unsuited for the art of animal-representation. The creatures' coats seem fresh from a mud-bath or paste-pot, and the strong free lines of muscle and bone, in nature merely draped by skin and fur, are lost in the blotchy and mushy illustrations with which magazine literature of late has teemed. Those gathered here are not by any means the worst of their kind, but we find their truth to nature diminishing (as perhaps might be expected) as we pass from the familiar dogs and monkeys to camels, bats, and even the bighorn of our Western mountains.

The text is more satisfactory, and exhibits more thorough study from the life than the illustrations. The anecdotes, if sometimes a little suspiciously human, are refreshingly new, and related with more of the art of the writer, and familiarity with the scientific side of the subject, than is usual in books of this sort. To the general reader the volume may be recommended, and even the naturalist will find something here and there to repay perusal. It is neatly printed and bound.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, L. How to Succeed: a Series of Essays by Various Authors. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
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Besant-Rice. All Sorts and Conditions of Men. Harper's Franklin Square Library.
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Browning, R. Agamemnon, La Salsas, and Dramatic Idylls. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
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Chailamel, A. History of Fashion in France. Scribner & Welford.
Church, Ella Rodman. The Home Needle. D. Appleton & Co.
Converse, J. O. Garfield the Ideal Man. Cleveland: W. W. Williams.
Cory, W. A Guide to Modern English History. Part 2. 1830-1835. Henry Holt & Co. \$3.50.
Creighton, M. A History of the Papacy during the Period of the Reformation. In 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$10.
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Goethe, J. W. von. Poems, translated. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$4.
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Griffis, W. E. Corea, the Hermit Nation. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$3.50.
Grissold, W. M. General Index to the North American Review, Vols. 92-134 (1861-1882). Bangor, Maine: Q. P. Index.
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